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HUNT'S MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.

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Art. I.—VALUE AND PROSPECTS OF LIFE IN THE UNITED STATES.

PART. II.

AN ANALYSIS OF THE VARIOUS UNITED STATES' CENSUSES, REGARDING THE AGES OF THE INHABITANTS WITH A VIEW TO ILLUSTRATE THE VALUE AND PROSPECTS OF LIFE IN THE DIFFERENT SECTIONS OF THE UNITED STATES.

In continuing the examination of the information to be derived from the United States' census of ages, concerning the duration and prospects of life in the various sections of the country, we proceed to present a table embracing every state, constructed on principles that have been alluded to. The male white population in infancy, or under 5, are put on an equality for each state, and those in the subsequent periods, bear by per centage on this number in infancy, which, for convenience, is assumed to be 100. Another table puts the number between 20 and 30 on an equality, and shows the per centage on this number, in four of the subsequent periods. Another table still, introduces equality in the number of inhabitants between 70 and 80; being a table from which extracts have already been presented. Some peculiarities will be noted *almost corresponding to the latitudes of the states*, in the successive diminutions of the proportions of persons in the successive periods of life. The census used is that of 1840. It will be seen that, among states, New Hampshire and Connecticut stand in the foremost rank, for filling up the middle and later stages of life, (the two very latest stages excepted,) and will rank by the side of Great Britain, preceding her in infancy, and falling behind in manhood. An *order of succession* in the arrangement of countries, states, and cities, in the three following tables, will be perceived in noticing the *last* column, *except one*, of the first table, and the *last* columns of the other two tables. It will be perceived, as a peculiar circumstance, that the countries of Great Britain and the New England states, are at the *head* of the first two tables, and the *foot* of the last one. The *last* column of the first table gives the number of the males necessary to be taken in the several places to embrace just 100, under the age of 5 years. For cities, it will be perceived that those numbers are generally the largest, which shows that they are much indebted for their population to adult emigrants from the country. Had the first table been constructed in this manner for the census of 1830, instead of 1840, the differences would be immaterial; they would be such as might be inferred from the already proved truth, that the population of every part of the country has been becoming an older one. Such table having been prepared for 1830, shows that in 18 of 24 states, the ratio of all over 60 to those under 5, has increased; but no exception to the Western States.

TABLE I.—(Explained in the context.)

	Under 5.	5 to 10.	10 to 15.	15 to 20.	20 to 30.	30 to 40.	40 to 50.	50 to 60.	60 to 70.	70 to 80.	80 to 90.	90 to 100.	Over 100.	All av. 100.	Whole No. represented by the 100.
New Hampshire.....	100	94.0	91.9	85.1	130.	101.2	70.9	47.9	30.8	18.7	5.9	.56	.011	35.02	735
Connecticut.....	100	91.5	90.8	88.0	137.	100.	70.2	47.9	30.1	17.7	5.4	.48	.012	33.93	740
W. a. 1891.....	100	92.9	90.6	86.6	94.6	73.9	54.0	43.0	31.6	16.3	4.9	.50	.006	33.33	665
Stockholm, 1775.....	100	86.2	90.1	90.0	916.	204.	136.	73.6	35.9	13.4	9.3	.36	.006	51.90	1053
Sweden, 1775.....	100	76.8	74.3	68.6	110.	73.1	59.6	43.3	30.7	14.4	3.5	.31	.026	51.10	604
Scott. Ind, 1821.....	100	90.4	88.6	84.2	108.	73.	59.6	43.3	30.7	14.4	3.6	.36	.008	49.36	667
England, 1821.....	100	87.3	86.1	83.5	103.	73.	59.6	43.3	30.7	14.4	3.6	.36	.008	47.38	650
Vermont.....	100	87.7	79.7	78.2	103.	73.	59.6	43.3	30.7	14.4	3.6	.36	.008	44.03	673
Massachusetts.....	100	85.2	80.2	78.9	101.	73.	59.6	43.3	30.7	14.4	3.6	.36	.008	42.34	701
Rhode Island.....	100	83.4	83.7	70.6	139.	95.	63.5	39.3	22.1	12.1	4.0	.53	.030	38.50	731
London, Eng, 1821.....	100	78.4	66.8	61.8	123.	110.	86.	56.	32.3	12.1	4.0	.53	.030	36.00	716
Maine.....	100	88.1	78.2	64.3	104.	73.	49.2	31.0	18.3	8.4	1.6	.12	.014	36.00	716
New Jersey.....	100	82.6	76.1	67.1	104.	73.	49.2	31.0	18.3	8.4	1.6	.12	.014	36.00	716
New York (State).....	100	84.1	74.5	68.2	123.	84.	51.9	33.3	16.4	7.8	2.1	.33	.024	31.28	694
Virginia.....	100	77.2	66.2	53.2	92.	59.	39.6	24.1	18.9	6.4	1.8	.28	.037	28.09	615
Maryland.....	100	70.5	68.4	60.7	112.	77.	47.2	27.1	14.6	5.8	1.5	.24	.060	22.45	535
United States.....	100	80.6	69.2	59.5	104.	68.	42.2	24.7	13.7	6.1	1.7	.27	.037	22.32	569
North Carolina.....	100	73.7	67.8	53.4	83.	52.	36.2	22.5	18.7	6.1	1.6	.27	.037	21.71	517
Pennsylvania.....	100	78.5	67.8	61.8	102.	66.	43.0	25.1	13.5	6.2	1.6	.27	.042	21.51	565
Delaware.....	100	80.1	72.5	62.7	116.	72.	43.0	25.1	13.5	6.2	1.6	.27	.042	21.51	565
South Carolina.....	100	78.1	67.1	55.2	91.	55.5	36.8	21.0	12.3	5.7	1.35	.20	.081	20.63	509
Ohio.....	100	80.2	66.8	56.8	95.9	59.4	38.0	21.0	12.3	5.7	1.35	.20	.081	20.63	509
Kentucky.....	100	78.0	66.1	55.0	91.	55.5	36.8	21.0	12.3	5.7	1.35	.20	.081	20.63	509
New York (city).....	100	86.3	48.4	62.8	242.	245.	99.5	87.3	11.2	5.2	1.45	.22	.032	18.59	536
Charleston, S. C.....	100	72.1	73.4	77.8	185.	138.	69.2	31.5	11.0	5.4	1.08	.36	.206	18.13	515
Baltimore.....	100	70.9	61.8	66.8	184.	90.	46.6	24.4	12.0	8.7	1.10	.22	.047	17.84	598
Tennessee.....	100	80.1	66.8	50.9	76.	46.	28.9	19.0	10.6	4.5	1.27	.16	.038	17.10	611
Boston.....	100	74.4	59.0	70.7	274.	164.	98.9	25.8	10.6	4.3	1.14	.17	.070	16.02	484
Philadelphia.....	100	71.9	56.9	63.5	184.	89.	48.4	23.0	10.5	3.0	1.14	.17	.070	16.02	484
Georgia.....	100	71.9	56.9	63.5	184.	89.	48.4	23.0	10.5	3.0	1.14	.17	.070	16.02	484
Albany.....	100	77.5	61.9	47.7	79.2	50.6	31.7	17.4	9.6	8.75	.91	.13	.128	15.65	608
New York (city).....	100	76.3	59.1	55.1	112.	106.	55.5	28.0	10.0	3.09	1.30	.13	.048	14.71	451
Florida.....	100	65.5	53.4	55.8	157.	109.	47.4	20.5	9.5	3.16	1.30	.114	.018	14.50	601
Indiana.....	100	79.4	62.0	53.2	179.	114.	48.8	21.6	8.9	3.00	.82	.117	.018	13.51	693
Illinois.....	100	81.7	65.5	58.5	85.	58.	39.7	19.6	8.8	3.90	.76	.096	.041	12.95	971
Alabama.....	100	77.5	56.8	52.2	151.	118.	57.5	24.0	8.7	2.97	.78	.096	.041	12.95	971
Arkansas.....	100	77.0	62.3	44.8	86.	58.	52.2	16.4	7.8	2.78	.74	.198	.054	12.76	649
Mississippi.....	100	77.1	64.2	51.3	109.	65.	52.2	16.4	7.8	2.78	.74	.198	.054	12.76	649
Missouri.....	100	72.5	58.7	44.3	108.	61.	50.6	10.3	7.6	2.89	.66	.071	.027	10.51	493
Martha's Vineyard, Dukes Co., Mass.....	100	103.	94.5	86.9	159.	118.	85.	57.	39.1	28.2	6.37	2.38	70.95	875
Litchfield Co., Conn.....	100	92.9	98.0	92.0	137.	106.	79.	86.	34.0	30.6	6.35	.50	61.39	817

TABLE II.

	20 to 30.	30 to 40.	40 to 50.	50 to 60.	60 to 70.
Wales	100	77.0	60.9	45.1	33.1
Scotland	100	73.5	60.0	43.6	30.7
England	100	78.5	64.0	45.2	30.4
Sweden	100	85.4	66.3	46.4	29.8
New Hampshire	100	75.7	58.3	39.2	24.8
Vermont	100	76.5	55.7	42.4	23.8
Connecticut	100	73.1	51.1	34.9	21.9
London	100	90.0	70.0	42.8	20.5
Maine	100	70.7	47.2	29.8	17.6
North Carolina	100	62.6	43.4	27.0	16.4
Rhode Island	100	68.5	44.9	28.3	15.9
New Jersey	100	59.4	45.0	27.4	15.8
Virginia	100	64.4	43.3	26.3	15.2
Massachusetts*	100	68.3	39.4	25.3	15.0
Tennessee	100	61.3	38.0	25.0	14.0
South Carolina	100	61.2	40.6	24.9	13.6
New York (State)	100	63.4	42.2	23.8	13.3
Pennsylvania	100	65.1	42.1	24.9	13.2
United States	100	65.3	40.3	23.7	13.2
Maryland	100	70.0	42.8	24.6	13.2
Ohio	100	61.9	39.6	21.9	13.1
Kentucky	100	59.4	37.4	22.2	12.5
Georgia	100	64.0	40.0	22.0	12.2
Delaware	100	62.1	37.1	22.2	11.9
Indiana	100	64.3	37.2	23.8	10.7
Alabama	100	61.3	37.4	19.1	9.15
Albany	100	94.4	49.5	20.5	8.98
Baltimore	100	67.1	34.5	18.1	8.97
Philadelphia	100	66.3	36.0	17.1	7.85
Missouri	100	60.3	33.7	16.6	7.21
Mississippi	100	59.9	29.8	16.4	7.13
Illinois	100	59.8	30.1	16.7	6.97
New York (city)	100	69.5	30.2	13.0	6.04
Charleston, S. O.	100	71.9	37.4	17.0	5.96
Louisiana	100	78.5	38.2	15.9	5.81
New Orleans	100	85.0	41.2	15.4	5.12
Florida	100	63.7	27.3	12.0	5.01
Cincinnati	100	51.9	20.4	9.2	4.13
Boston	100	60.3	19.7	9.4	3.87
St. Louis	100	50.2	13.2	4.2	1.51
Great Britain, } both sexes.	100	74.4	58.9	42.0	29.1
Ireland, }	100	65.9	43.8	35.0	15.5

TABLE III.

	70 to 80.	80 to 90.	90 to 100.	Over 100.	Over 90.
New Orleans	100	28.5	9.50	5.43	14.9
{ Louisiana	100	24.8	6.34	4.38	10.7
Do. West District of	100	17.9	3.41	5.11	8.52
Do. East District, omitting N. O.	100	27.5	4.78	2.75	7.53
{ Alabama	100	27.4	4.69	2.00	6.69
Do. South District	100	27.7	5.40	2.80	8.20
Do. North District	100	27.0	3.88	1.08	4.96
Philadelphia	100	23.2	3.46	3.13	6.59
Georgia	100	27.7	5.30	1.16	6.46
Charleston, S. O.	100	12.2	4.06	2.03	6.09
Boston	100	26.3	4.11	1.64	5.75
Baltimore	100	29.4	4.19	1.26	5.45
North Carolina	100	26.1	4.41	1.02	5.43
Cincinnati	100	17.4	4.34	1.08	5.42

* Massachusetts would stand higher in this table, were there not an unnaturally large proportion between 20 and 30 in the State.

TABLE III.—Continued.

	70 to 80.	80 to 90.	90 to 100.	Ov'r 100.	Ov'r 90.
Kentucky.....	100	27.9	4.21	1.00	5.21
Maryland.....	100	26.7	4.18	1.02	5.20
South Carolina.....	100	28.9	3.50	1.55	5.05
Virginia.....	100	27.9	4.40	.55	4.98
Tennessee.....	100	28.1	3.58	.73	4.31
Illinois.....	100	28.0	3.13	1.16	4.29
New York (city).....	100	22.9	3.70	.41	4.11
Missouri.....	100	22.5	3.45	.62	4.07
Mississippi.....	100	27.9	3.00	.86	3.86
United States.....	100	27.4	3.13	.60	3.73
Ohio.....	100	28.9	2.94	.77	3.71
Albany.....	100	42.1	3.67	...	3.67
Indiana.....	100	24.4	3.01	.62	3.63
Delaware.....	100	22.7	1.86	1.49	3.35
Massachusetts.....	100	29.5	3.02	.26	3.28
Pennsylvania.....	100	26.6	2.60	.68	3.28
Scotland.....	100	26.9	3.10	.18	3.28
Wales.....	100	30.3	3.07	.04	3.11
Vermont.....	100	28.3	2.68	.41	3.09
New Hampshire.....	100	31.5	2.99	.06	3.05
Maine.....	100	25.2	2.91	.12	3.03
New Jersey.....	100	26.8	2.73	.28	3.01
Connecticut.....	100	30.7	2.73	.24	2.97
New York (State).....	100	27.1	2.59	.37	2.96
Rhode Island.....	100	33.2	2.31	...	2.31
Sweden.....	100	24.4	2.12
Stockholm.....	100	17.3	1.93
England.....	100	25.7	1.80	.05	1.85

Having prepared tables on the principle of these, for every county in New England, New York, and Pennsylvania, which are too cumbersome here to present, the writer alludes to the circumstance merely to state that they furnish a means of interpreting those which are given. It was desirable to know how far the parts of a state, or its counties, resemble the state as a whole—and whether those parts to which nature has given a peculiarity of surface, as elevation, depression, a dry or a moist soil, etc., present any correspondencies in any relative proportion of persons, at the different ages, to each other. Though the boundaries of states and counties are considered arbitrary, yet in numerous instances, they regard nature's lines and boundaries; such as highlands, ranges of mountains, rivers, etc. Thus, the southern half of New England is divided by highlands from New York,—five counties in Vermont occupy exactly all the country between the Connecticut River and the range of Green Mountains, being a more elevated and a dryer half of that state. These same five counties, arranged as in the first of these three tables, according to the ratio of those over 60 to those under 5, will, *every one of them, rank above the remaining nine counties of that state.* And, moreover, some of the five are *recently settled* counties, and some of the nine are the *longest settled* ones in the state. Again, six counties in New York are adjacent to six counties in New England, (embracing the boundary line from Lake Champlain to Long Island Sound,) and each of the latter six counties would rank above each of the former six, by the same test,—which is evidently *more*, than to say that each New-England county ranks above its adjacent New York one.

The counties of Litchfield and Tolland in Connecticut, Worcester and Franklin in Massachusetts, Cheshire and Merrimack in New Hamp-

shire, stand foremost among the counties in these states severally. They are elevated counties, the sources of the neighboring rivers. Litchfield is a high table land, and parts of it are elevated 1000 feet above the sea, and is known by data, independent of the *census*, to be a healthy country. So is Worcester county in Massachusetts. New Hampshire is known by independent data, to be one of the healthiest of states; an eminent physician, writing from that state, says: "there is probably no state in the union, in which there is so little disease as in this,—I have never known an extensive epidemic." This circumstance, weighed with the fact that New Hampshire stands at the head of the two preceding tables, (and the third is no test,) will serve to offset any unfounded inferences that we have attempted to draw from the United States' census. The value of life is high in that state. It is very high in infancy and through manhood.

Tested in this manner, the counties of Suffolk, Otsego, Saratoga, Fulton and Madison, in New York, stand foremost, the contiguous counties next, and in general the eastern middle of the state—the parts about the sources of the Mohawk river, rank above other portions of the state. The counties named would rank with Massachusetts in table first, the southern district will rank with Rhode Island, and the northern and western parts of the state rank with Pennsylvania.

In Pennsylvania, the counties of Adams, Bucks, and Washington, rank highest; The eastern district, as well as the eastern district of Virginia, (both lying east of the Alleghany mountains,) above the western districts severally.

In regard to the state of Virginia and others south of her, the reader has perceived that seven states, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, and Mississippi, rank in the first of these tables, in the order here named, or *in the order of juxtaposition on the coast*, and in the following order in the second table,—North Carolina, Virginia, South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, Florida,—no essential deviation from the first order. Unquestionably the average age which the white population possess in those states, would rank in a similar order. Is this order of arrangement accidental, determined by no one essential determinable cause? If we take seven similar ivory balls, numbered from one to seven, we could not arrange them *consecutively* in a row by touching them only, more than once in two thousand five hundred and twenty trials, nor more than once in five thousand and forty trials, placing number one or seven, at the end of the row desired. It is confessed that this order is somewhat that of the lengths of time since settlement and growth; but this does not appear a sufficient, nor so satisfactory an explanation, as to refer it all to causes affecting health and duration of life depending on climate. The region in question embraces a great range of country, under many gradations of climate, and perhaps it is not too much to expect that the average influences of soil and climate in this range of country on human life, should be summed up into as many as seven grades, consecutive with the coast, that would not be confounded with each other, by any legitimate test, of a numerical nature.

With regard to the concession that has been previously mentioned, that recent and rapid growth of a state in population, corresponds with a greater relative proportion of persons in early life, in many instances; it may be in point to state that Mississippi, which has recently grown the most rapidly of any state in the Union with one or two exceptions, did

not undergo an increase of this proportion from 1830 to 1840; for what reason it does not appear; but the fact weighs in favor of the above opinion. It cannot but be regarded as an important fact, that there are but one-fifth as many men above 60 in that state, as New England will average, in proportion to the white males under five.

Allusion has already been made to the fact that all the southern states agree, in prolonging life remarkably after the age of 85 is reached, and among them Louisiana takes the lead, as seen in the last table; the circumstance that this state, taken by its east and west districts and chief city, holds still the pre-eminence in each part, confirms the probability that there is something peculiar in the climate of that region, favorable to very advanced life. The writer has not meteorological data on this point that would enable him to specify what this peculiarity is.

The western states, although of more recent settlement and rapid growth, have, with one or two exceptions, a higher proportion of persons advanced in adult life, than the southern states. It is but fair here to state that these states rank in this respect, among each other, nearly in the order of lengths of time since settlement, or rather of distance westward, viz: Ohio, Kentucky, Tennessee, Indiana, Illinois, Missouri, in 1840; and thus in 1830,—Kentucky, Ohio, Tennessee, Indiana, Missouri, Illinois. Also, there was a greater increase in these relative proportions in these states during the ten years, than in any other states, except the rapidly growing states of the north; among which may be instanced New York, Maine, and Vermont. It is exceedingly difficult, without the aid of collateral statistics, to draw any correct conclusions with regard to what is to be the relative proportion of persons in the different ages of life, in these states at the time when they shall have ceased to receive immigrants, when they shall have given birth to, and carried through life, their own literal population; at the time indeed when they shall rank with the old states in all those respects in which they should, in order that the comparisons, here attempted, might be made in a legitimate manner. The collateral statistics would be those of births, marriages, and deaths, (with the ages of marriages and deaths,) that take place annually in the states. In such statistics, widely extended, there would latently exist such information, as that of the number of children in a family, the number of generations at once on the stage of life. People are able to get this knowledge of themselves only in their governmental capacity. Massachusetts, has by authority, commenced this liberal statistical information, by causing every birth, marriage, and death in the commonwealth to be registered by the town clerks, and returned to the secretary of state every year. The liberal governments of Europe had done as much a century ago.

At present, the population of a *considerable portion of our country* is not of such a nature, that, if every death that had ever occurred in it had been recorded, and its age, we should be able to deduce therefrom the true expectation of life in years, because so great a proportion of the population is *young*, owing to *other* causes, than those properly inherent in the climate, influencing the duration of life. Deaths take place, other things being equal, in proportion to the number living. Deaths of advanced persons would be comparatively few. If such an attempt should be made, results would be produced no more correct, than results founded on and deduced from the relative proportions of the living; and this is evidently

impossible until we have definite and distinct statistics of the number of immigrants in such region, within a specified time. Every immigrant compensates *numerically* for a death.

A rude estimate may be made of mortality in the United States, from the census alone; or rather a number for the annual proportion of deaths may be obtained, which will be *less* than the true number by the number of persons proportional to the population, arriving in the country in the same time; and this will have reference only to the number of persons dying *above* the age of 5 years, *below* which age very great mortality usually takes place. The following is the method.

Since the country increases decennially about 35 per cent in population, it becomes necessary to allow room for this increase, by supposing a sufficient number of persons in decennial period of life, (which period with the persons continuing to live, becomes the following period at the end of ten years,) to remain alive to make 35 per cent advance on that next period. If we take 100,000 of the white population of 1840, by ten decennial periods, and one supra-centennial one, they will be apportioned among the periods as in the column below, under the year 1840; each portion becoming 35 per cent greater in ten years, the 135,000 persons will be apportioned as under the year 1850.

	1840.	1850.	Excessea.
Under 10.....	31,606	42,669	544
10 to 20.....	23,010	31,063	1,490 defic'y
20 to 30.....	18,133	24,104	2,508
30 to 40.....	11,589	15,645	1,709
40 to 50.....	7,319	9,880	1,425
50 to 60.....	4,366	5,894	1,057
60 to 70.....	2,451	3,309	818
70 to 80.....	1,136	1,533	702
80 to 90.....	322	434	267
90 to 100.....	41	55	34
100 and over.....	5	7	5
	100,000	135,000	10,559
			Def., 1,490
			9,069

The column headed *excesses*, represents the number of persons in the periods of the date 1840, who are too many to equal the number of those *one period* of 10 years *later in life*, under the date of 1850. The sum of these excesses, omitting one deficiency, gives the number of persons not to be accounted for at the end of ten years, unless they have died, 9,069; this being an decennial result, should be divided by ten for what would be about an annual average result. We have, then, a fraction over nine deaths per 1000 of the population, annually; this being probably not one half of the true number. It may perhaps be regarded as a peculiar circumstance, that if every white person living in 1840, between the age of 10 and 20 years, were to live till 1850, they would not be equal to the probable number between the age of 20 and 30 at that date; population increasing 35 per cent, as it did from 1830 to 1840. So much for immigration compared with the number of deaths at one period of life—that period in which there is commonly every where the smallest percentage of deaths.

The ratio of the number of persons under the age of 5 years at one time living, to the number born during the 5 years, was for Sweden in

the year 1775, as 100 to 146; it may not be materially different in the United States, since Sweden, though salubrious to middle life, is destructive to infancy, one half dying before the age of ten years, or more exactly forty-eight and two-thirds per cent—forty-three per cent dying before the age of 5 years. Now 100,000 white persons in the United States have 17,433 under the age of 5 years; 46 per cent advance on this number gives 25,452 as the number of births in 5 years, or 5090 per year, or one to twenty of the population—a proportion too large for truth. Probably one birth in twenty-five or thirty of the population is about the truth. In New England the proportion is about one in thirty-six or thirty-eight of the population, a very large proportion of whom being beyond middle life, much larger than in the United States. Countries which contribute most to the prolongation of life, have this proportion the smallest.

It is proper to observe before the close of this examination, that should we draw inferences from these tables concerning longevity in different sections of the United States, *without* those qualifications or apologies that have been advanced for some sections, the differences among the sections would be no greater than are known to exist between parts of countries in Europe, bearing no comparison in extent of territory with the United States. The circumstances of difference depending not so much on mere latitude, as on those conditions of soil which generate febrile diseases—the chief source of the destruction of a majority of all lives in some regions. M. Bossi gives the following table, illustrative of the comparative influence on lives, of the peculiarities of the surface of the country in different sections of France:

	1 death annually among	1 marriage among	1 birth among
In hilly districts.....	33.3 persons.	179 persons.	34.8 persons.
Along the banks of rivers.	26.6 "	145 "	28.8 "
In cultivated grounds	24.6 "	133 "	27.5 "
In marshy places.....	20.8 "	107 "	26.1 "

There are nearly as great differences presented by the counties of England, according as they are hilly or fenny. In the whole country there is one death annually among 58.7 inhabitants. The counties reported in parliamentary returns as essentially fenny, are Kent, (1 death in 41,) Essex, (1 in 44,) and the East Riding of Yorkshire, (1 in 47,) and in these counties the mortality is much above the average. The mortality of the *town* of Boston "situated in the fens," is 1 in 27: the *town* of Stamford, "in the dry upland," one in 50. Not only were the above counties reported as "fenny," but as "subject to agues."

The only reason why the *male sex* only is embraced in most of the allusions to the census, and in the large tables here given, is, that the sexes stood distinct in the compendium of the census made use of, and the labor was much less than to have presented combined results. The male sex is more subject to the influences of climate, and these results are perhaps more important than had they regarded both sexes; especially since separate results would exist, if the census of the other sex should undergo any similar analysis. The following comparison of the two sexes of the white population, for the country as a whole, presenting results appreciable by the eye, which may be expected to undergo but very little variation, (being deduced from so many millions of persons,) is calculated to give an approximative view of the relative lengths of life of the sexes in this country.

	Males.	Females.
Under 5 assume	100.	100.
Then from 5 to 10 there must be.....	80.6	82.2
10 to 15.....	69.2	69.7
15 to 20.....	59.5	65.8
20 to 30.....	104.1	104.3
30 to 40.....	68.1	64.9
40 to 50.....	42.2	41.8
50 to 60.....	24.7	25.4
60 to 70.....	13.7	14.4
70 to 80.....	6.3	6.7
80 to 90.....	1.7	2.0
90 to 100.....	.20	.27
Over 100.....	.037	.026
	570.	577.

If we may infer any thing concerning the relative morality of the sexes it is—greater male morality under 15 years, and the greater female mortality during early adult life; greater male mortality in later adult life, and finally greater female mortality between the years 90 and 100, leaving more males than females to die above the age of 100. There are, generally, more males born than females, and more females living at a time than males.

With reference to the comparative duration of life of the white and black population of the country at large, the following table has been prepared.

	P. ct. ov. 45 in 1820.	Per ct. over 55 in 1830.	1840.	No. pr. 100,000 ov. 100 in 1830.	1840.
White males.....	11.85	6.039	6.018	5½	6½
White females.....	11.99	6.017	6.259	4½	4½
Free black males.....	15.62	7.675	7.396	175	152
Free black females.....	15.61	8.318	8.064	232	181
Male slaves.....	9.56	4.176	4.178	74	60
Female slaves.....	9.41	4.219	4.056	68	47

It is here assumed that one-half of the *white* population between 40 and 50, are over 45, and that one-half between 50 and 60 are over 55, which is evidently too great an allowance; consequently, the per cent of the whites here given as over 45 and 55 are larger than truth, though they are still less than the corresponding per centages of the free blacks. In New England, however, the whites have as great a proportion over these ages, as the free blacks of the United States have.

The *great contrast* through the above table between *free blacks* and *slaves*, will strike attention, which we leave to suggest its own comments. But the relative proportion of whites and blacks over 100 is the greatest peculiarity. There is, indeed, a greater proportion of blacks over 100, than of whites over 90 or even 85, but not over 80. There is about the same per cent of free blacks over 100 as of whites over 84; and were we to regard the *south only*, for whites and blacks, instead of 84, the age of whites must be put considerably lower, to embrace that equal per centage, and somewhat higher than 84, regarding New England for whites, and the country for blacks.

The preceding investigations are offered as a contribution toward a liberal intelligence concerning the population of this widely extended and widely *extending* country.

The following table is here presented (constructed on precisely the principle of one that has been explained,) relating to counties in New

England, the male population of 1840 being that regarded. The order of rank will be perceived. The counties of Vermont, however, have been mislaid since they were first prepared, a year ago, also those of Rhode Island.

	Und. 5.	5 to 10.	10 to 15.	15 to 20.	20 to 30.	30 to 40.	40 to 50.	50 to 60.	60 to 70.	70 to 80.	80 to 90.	90 to 100.	Over 100.
Dukes, Mass.....	100	104	94	87	160	118	85	57	39	23	6.4	2.28	71
Tolland, Ct.....	100	95	98	91	122	96	75	59	36	19	7.7	.47	64
Cheshire, N. H.....	100	91	93	91	121	93	72	55	33	20	8.4	.89	62
Windham, Ct.....	100	92	92	87	128	96	69	54	34	20	6.3	.68	61
Merrimac, N. H....	100	94	93	80	118	92	74	51	32	21	5.7	.56	61
Litchfield, Ct.....	100	92	98	92	137	102	79	56	34	21	6.2	.50	61
Rockingham, N. H.	100	94	96	87	135	98	74	50	32	20	5.1	.57	60
Sullivan, N. H.....	100	93	92	100	129	94	77	49	29	21	7.4	.47	58
Franklin, Mass....	100	91	90	91	118	87	64	47	31	20	6.5	.79	58
Plymouth, Mass....	100	96	93	88	130	104	74	53	31	19	5.6	.58	57
Windsor, Vt.....													57
Orange, Vt.....													55
Washington, R. I..													55
Hillsboro', N. H...	100	91	89	79	120	97	70	51	29	18	6.1	.56	54
Strafford, N. H....	100	98	96	85	112	86	69	45	28	18	5.8	.58	53
Fairfield, Ct.....	100	92	87	77	117	94	67	44	29	18	4.5	.55	52
Hampshire, Mass..	100	88	88	88	133	97	69	48	28	19	4.9	.40	52
Windham, Vt.....													52
New Haven, Ct....	100	94	85	88	153	110	70	46	30	17	5.2	.42	52
Grafton, N. H....	100	93	86	87	126	87	64	41	28	17	5.3	.41	51
Worcester, Mass...	100	88	89	83	156	101	68	47	28	17	5.8	.61	51
Middlesex, Ct.....	100	87	91	88	124	87	68	44	28	17	4.8	.25	50
New London, Ct....	100	93	91	93	144	99	67	44	25	17	6.4	.58	50
Hartford, Ct....	100	88	90	90	153	107	70	46	29	15	4.2	.39	49
Nantucket, Mass...	100	76	84	99	216	128	73	49	27	17	3.2	.20	48
Caledonia, Vt.....													48
Newport, R. I.....													47
York, Me.....	100	91	87	76	102	74	58	41	25	17	4.2	.41	46
Berkshire, Mass...	100	85	79	79	140	105	67	40	25	16	4.4	.54	46
Essex, Vt.....													46
Hampden, Mass...	100	91	87	83	166	119	73	46	26	15	4.6	.40	46
Kent, R. I.....													46
Washington, Vt....													45
Essex, Mass.....	100	86	80	74	145	101	62	40	36	13	4.0	.38	44
Rutland, Vt.....													44
Bristol, Mass.....	100	83	83	74	146	100	63	40	24	15	4.2	.46	44
Barnstable, Mass..	100	90	85	76	125	90	55	37	26	13	3.3	.48	42
Addison, Vt.....													42
Bennington, Vt....													41
Norfolk, Mass.....	100	82	75	73	151	103	61	40	24	13	3.5	.33	41
Cumberland, Me...	100	92	82	76	120	84	56	36	23	13	3.4	.35	40
Cooa, N. H.....	100	88	79	64	82	72	56	30	22	11	3.0	.36	37
Kennebec, Me.....	100	92	84	77	110	76	48	34	21	12	2.9	.52	36
Oxford, Me.....	100	91	86	74	95	74	55	37	20	12	3.1	.30	36
Chittenden, Vt....													35
Lincoln, Me.....	100	88	79	69	115	73	48	32	20	11	3.5	.28	34
Lamoile, Vt.....													34
Orleans, Vt.....													32
Franklin, Me.....	100	89	78	72	92	72	48	30	18	11	1.8	.23	31
Somerset, Me.....	100	87	75	64	91	65	44	29	17	8	1.8	.23	27
Hancock, Me.....	100	80	69	58	89	63	41	22	14	8	1.6	.22	26
Waldo, Me.....	100	87	74	66	100	66	44	27	13	6	2.1	.25	24
Grand Isle, Vt....													24
Washington, Me....	100	84	75	67	93	67	46	25	12	6	1.4	.28	19
Piscataquis, Me....	100	91	80	69	75	69	45	25	13	5	1.3	.00	19
Penobscot, Me.....	100	82	68	85	114	85	42	24	12	5	1.1	.20	18
Suffolk, Ms., Boston.	100	74	51	164	274	164	54	26	11	4	1.1	.17	16
Aroostook, Me.....	100	81	59	76	128	76	41	21	10	3	.6	.00	14

Art. II.—PROGRESS OF RAILROADS IN MASSACHUSETTS.

NATURE has not been liberal to Massachusetts in soil, climate, or navigable streams. Her territory, confined within narrow limits, is generally rugged and unequal—her winters long and severe. With the exception of the Merrimac, no great rivers have their outlets in her ports; and the Merrimac, by its bars and rapids, gives little encouragement to navigation; and yet with all these drawbacks, with no articles for export but ice and granite, her progress has been rapid and astonishing. Her harsh climate has invigorated her hardy sons—her ungrateful fields have given them lessons of frugality and enterprize—her forests have been moulded into ships to pursue the cod, the seal, and the whale, have sought wealth in foreign climes, and become the great carriers of the Union. With the funds thus gathered on the deep, or in richer lands accumulating in frugal hands, they have made the very roughness of nature subservient to art. The streams have been arrested in their precipitous fall to the sea, and compelled to toil, to spin, and to weave. The boulders and ledges which defaced the fields have been lifted from their beds to build the foundations of factories, or to line the wells and cellars of a growing population, imparting to her fields the fertility originally denied by nature.

But commerce and art demand easy communication, and so essential has Massachusetts deemed it to its progress, that she has bent herself to supply the absence of navigable waters. Commencing with a noble system of town and country roads, she early embarked in turnpikes, diverging in all directions from her metropolis; coaches and wagons were soon in motion, connecting her with the interior, and Boston became distinguished for lines of stages, unrivalled in speed and comfort, throughout the Union. But a new agent began to exert a mighty influence. The genius of Fulton gave to the water an ascendancy over the land, and the fast coach and the slow wagon were vanquished by the steamboat. Armed with the power of steam, New York made the East and the North rivers the arteries of commerce, and extending these great routes by navigable canals, she grasped not only the west, with Vermont and Canada on the north, but pierced the very heart of Massachusetts, pushing her improvements up the valleys of the Connecticut, and the Blackstone, to Springfield and Northampton, and even to Worcester, but forty miles west of Boston. The steamboat, in alliance with the canals, running down the natural water-courses, seemed destined to make Massachusetts a mere tributary; a vortex was opened whose attraction was irresistible; how could the manufacturer or the artisan of the interior afford to pay five cents per mile for conveyance by the coach, or fifteen cents per mile a ton for the transit of his goods to Boston, when steamboats and canals had reduced the transit to New York from fifty to eighty per cent, and made her the eastern outlet of the prolific West?

Massachusetts had tried canals in advance of all the states; she was first in the race; she had surmounted the summit between the Merrimac and Boston, by the Middlesex Canal, before the war of 1812, and she remembers with pride that the commissioners of the Erie Canal, before commencing that great work, came to Massachusetts to learn the rudiments of canaling. But canals were not adapted to the rugged surface of the state from the intervening of ridges between Boston and the interior. The

manufactures, too, could poorly await for the melting of a channel ice-bound half the year. Between the close of 1825 and the beginning of 1831, gloom and despondency seemed to settle down upon Massachusetts. Her sons left her to build up rival states and cities, and her fairest and richest daughters were courted away to grace more prosperous lands. The grass began to invade the wharves and pavements of her commercial centre, and the paint to desert the fronts of her villages; her pride was in the glories of the past, and in these she will ever be rich—not in the achievements of the present or the promise of the future. She seemed to stand at the ancestral tomb, sorrowing that she could not partake of the progress of the age, or to be dropping a tear beside the old hive as it grew yearly darker, or crumbled away, while swarm after swarm left it for sunnier skies. But her spirit, though chilled, was not subdued; a new era was at hand; art was preparing for another bound; the east was about to requite the west for the discoveries of Fulton, and to make steam more powerful on land than he had made it on the water. A star, the presage of future progress, broke forth in the east when Robert Stephenson applied the modern locomotive to the rail, and gave to England and the world the finished rail-road. The noble viaduct which spans the Tyne, at Newcastle, on the main route from London to Edinburg, is soon to bear a costly statue dedicated to the great genius of modern times—to the master spirit who is revolutionizing the whole intercourse of the world; and Massachusetts owes him a statue also for his discovery, which, more than aught else in modern times, makes her what she is, and is to be.

So chilled was her spirit by the adverse current from 1825 to 1831, that she could scarcely see, in the twinkling star rising beyond the ocean, the beacon that was to light her onward. Wedded to the systems of the past, she could not realise that men and merchandize were to be whirled through her granite hills and deep ravines, winter and summer, regardless of frost and snow; and those who first ventured to name the fire-horse and the rail in the streets, journal and legislative halls, encountered the smile of derision, and the name of visionaries and enthusiasts. There are those still on the stage who remember the obscure chamber and studied privacy in which the first measures were concerted to enlighten the community. The glowing zeal of Allen, who saw in advance "a car from each town join the train as the caravan came along," the enlarged intellect of Segwick, and keen forecast of Degrand, could not shield them from the shafts of ridicule. The transition from darkness to light was too sudden, the mental eye could not, for months, accustom itself to the new field of vision.

But the incredulity of Massachusetts had its prototype in England, as we learn from the lips of Robert Stephenson himself. When he went to London, as the engineer of the Liverpool and Manchester Railway, to obtain a charter, he was cautioned as to his testimony. "Be sure," said the counsel, "when you testify before the committee, not to say your locomotive will make more than ten miles per hour. I know you honestly believe you can attain fifteen, but the public are not prepared for it, and will not believe it, and we may be laughed out of Parliament." Stephenson went before the committee; he proved his case, and claimed a speed for his machine of ten miles per hour, but when the opposing counsel asked him, in his cross examination, with a significant smile, "do you not believe you can run this fire horse of yours even twenty, or five and twenty miles

an hour," the conscientious man of science admitted the fact, and the dangerous admission of but half of what he accomplished startled the committee and nearly lost him the case. The success of the Liverpool and Manchester lines, however, was soon appreciated, and Massachusetts at once entered the field. Her first efforts, and one of the first lines finished in America, was the Quincy Railroad; then followed the Worcester; the Lowell and the Providence opened in 1834-5; then the Easton, Boston and Maine, Western, Nashua, Norwich and Worcester, Taunton, New Bedford, Fitchburg, Old Colony, and a network of railroads now in progress, overspreading the entire surface of the state, so widely disseminated that ere many months have elapsed, few points will be found in the Old Bay State more than one hour's ride from the cars.

The railroad system of Massachusetts has made such progress that it connects her great seaport not only with Albany and Lake Erie, but also with the principal towns of all the New England states, save Vermont, and is rapidly advancing across Vermont, via Windsor, Montpelier and Burlington, to Lake Champlain, northern New York and Canada. Under the mighty impetus thus given, the march of Massachusetts has been onward; manufactures, agriculture, commerce, and the arts have flourished; property has advanced in value; the cost of transit has fallen; population has been retained and drawn in from other states, and Boston, the commercial capital, is pressing onward with renewed vigor. In 1830 the population of Boston and its immediate suburbs, Charlestown, Cambridge and Roxbury, was, by the census, 81,500; in 1845, by the census, it is 155,000, showing a gain of 73,500, equal to 90 per cent in fifteen years. In 1830 the valuation of Boston was \$59,586,000; in 1845 it is \$135,948,700, showing a gain of \$76,263,700, or equal to 128 per cent.

The progress of the state itself, although not as rapid as that of Boston, has been striking also. In nearly all directions new structures meet the eye; value has been given to forests, quarries, mill-sites, and produce in the interior, and it is safe to predict that the census of 1850 will give to the state a population of 1,000,000, and a valuation of \$500,000,000, and to Boston and its suburbs a population of 200,000, and a valuation of \$200,000,000. It would not be just, however, to ascribe all this to the railroad system; a part is doubtless due to commerce, manufactures, and the fisheries; but the improved system of communication has given to them a vast impulse, and they have exerted a powerful influence on the system itself. Tusserene, in his report on the Belgian railroads, informs us that the tonnage of arrivals and departures increased fifty per cent in two years at Antwerp, and thirty per cent in one year at Ostend, on the completion of single lines of railways. If single lines have done so much, how much may be ascribed to seven distinct lines leading from Boston?

CHARACTER OF THE MASSACHUSETTS RAILROADS.

The art of constructing railroads has been and still is progressive. At the outset it was thought essential to secure the most favorable gradients, and great expenses were incurred to reduce them below thirty feet to the mile on the Worcester and Lowell railroads. Deep trenches were dug and filled with broken stone for foundations, and stone sills, or sleepers, were introduced at great cost on one of the lines. The early engines were of moderate power, but were soon made more efficient, and the improvement of motive power obviated most of the objections to higher gradients, and on some of the modern lines gradients of forty, sixty, and even

eighty-three feet to the mile have been introduced, and in practice. Thus far roads with gradients of forty feet have been run as cheaply as those more level. Surface roads conforming to the undulations of the country are thus constructed, and the absence of deep cuts and embankments exposed to the action of the elements, lightens their burthen of repairs. Most of our lines have single tracks, and for these the road-bed is usually formed twenty-four feet wide in the cuts, and fifteen on the embankments. Five rods is the usual width of the surface taken for a road, and the fences are now constructed by the companies. In place of broken stone, a bed of gravel or sand, well elevated above the drains, is now generally adopted as a foundation; all clay is removed, and water, the great enemy of railroads, courted away by a careful system of drainage. The stone sills, although at first thought most durable, have been found liable to break, and more costly and less elastic than wood. To avoid a jar, the Blacksmith places his anvil on wood, and such is the jar on stone foundations, that the wear of cars and engines, both in Europe and America, has been diminished by substituting wood for stone. The rails are now generally laid on sleepers or cross-ties, averaging seven feet by eight to twelve inches, and hewn on two sides, beneath which are hemlock sub-sills. The second growth chestnut has been found most durable for ties, and the most approved distance is two feet six inches from sleeper to sleeper. Across these are placed the rails; these are rolled iron, averaging 18 feet in length, and weighing usually 56 to 60 lbs. per yard. The pattern in most general use has a flat base, with a flat or rounded head; the base rests on the sleeper, and is attached to it by spikes with heads lapping on the rail, and the ends of the rail are connected and confined by clasp chairs of iron. At the outset, rails of various patterns were adopted. On the Worcester, a light edge rail of 39 lbs. to the yard was used, but was found inadequate, and which has been partially replaced with a rail of 60 lbs. to the yard. On the Lowell, the fish-belly rail of 35 lbs. to the yard has been tried, condemned, and replaced by one of 60, but as yet no good rails of the modern pattern and size have given indications of failure. A few of indifferent iron, whose upper surface had been rolled too thin, may have occasionally split at the edge, but in other particulars even ten years' use seems to have made little or no impression, and the problem is still unsolved, how long will they endure?

The engines now in use, and the proximity of the sleepers, favor the endurance. In England, ten to twelve thousand pounds weight is often thrown upon a driving wheel, but in Massachusetts eight thousand pounds is the maximum, and on many lines the average is from five to seven thousand pounds only. With cautious use, a long duration, and freedom from repairs may be anticipated for the best rails. The plate rail has received little or no countenance in Massachusetts. Its insecurity and instability—the inequality of surface which attends its use—the loss of speed and diminution of power which it entails, and extra cost of maintenance which must exceed the interest on the extra cost of a heavy rail, have deterred directors and engineers from adopting it. As the first president of the Western Railroad once happily expressed it, “he would not have for a railroad a hoop tacked to a lath.” The only specimen in Massachusetts is the upper section of the Housatonic line, which runs in from Connecticut, and a new association is preparing to replace it with a heavy rail. The success and popularity of the system may be ascribed in a great degree to the choice of the rail.

COST OF MANAGEMENT.

When the Chevalier de Gerstner visited the United States in 1838, the average cost through the Union of running a train, was reported by him to be one dollar per mile run. In 1840, Professor Vignalles, an eminent English engineer, in his report to the British Association, makes, as the result of a careful analysis of many English lines, an average cost of three shillings, or 72 cents per mile. In Massachusetts the average is not far from 65 cents per mile, while three of the more recent lines have actually run for the last two years, with a large traffic, at less than 40 cents per train a mile, and in all the lines the average size of the trains has greatly increased in addition. The first engines on the Liverpool and Manchester line, from which our earliest patterns were copied, are stated, in the report of Teisserenc, to have run but seven thousand miles each year, at a cost of £400 for repairs, or 29 cents per mile run. The Boston engines of the present day, with six to eight wheels, four fold the tractive power, and far lighter on the rail, perform with ease twenty-eight thousand miles a year, at a cost for repairs of three cents per mile run. In the wear of cars the improved axles, chilled wheels, the trucks and elongated frames, soft metal boxes for the journals, and springs beneath and between the cars, have effected an almost equal improvement. The training and discipline of operatives, establishment of inflexible rules, arrangement of depots, increase of reserved stock of engines and cars, judicious purchase and preparation of fuel, improved rails and adjustment of track, and increase of traffic, have all tended to reduce the cost of management, and it may be safely stated that the cost of conducting the business has been reduced more than fifty per cent.

In the printed report of the directors of the Boston and Worcester Railroad Company,* dated April, 1840, it is stated that the cost of transporting a ton between Worcester and Boston, including loading and unloading, was, in 1835, \$2 $\frac{33}{100}$, and the number of tons carried 9,359; in 1839, it was \$1 $\frac{24}{100}$, and the number of tons carried 29,108. In 1844, the Worcester Company, in a case with the Western Company, as to tolls, claimed that the cost, in 1843, was \$1 $\frac{11}{100}$ per ton—amount carried, 88,324 tons; but the Western Company would concede but 57 cents per ton, objecting to large items of deterioration and repairs, as belonging to prior years. The medium between them is 88 cents per ton, doubtless not far from the actual cost, which continues to decline with the increase of traffic. The cost on the Fitchburgh is materially less. The modern lines, with superior road-beds and rails, improved engines and cars, and less outlay on cuts and embankments, have, of course, the advantage in the race; but the managers of the old lines are generally aware that their policy is like that of the factories, "to work out the old and work in the new," and to keep pace with the progress of events; and their first choice of routes, and the business concentrated on their lines by an earlier start, aid them in their efforts.

Already railroads have decided advantages over canals in the monopoly of mails, passengers, and the business of six months of winter. Canals in a long series of years have reached, or nearly attained, their highest

* In 1845, the accounts of the Fitchburgh Railroad Company indicate that the cost of transporting freight, exclusive of loading and unloading, will be less than one cent per ton a mile.

point of perfection. Railroads, on the contrary, are yet in their infancy, and yet susceptible of improvement; have an indefinite capacity for trains, and with each increase of trains the cost of transit diminishes.* A great further reduction in the cost of transportation by railroads in Massachusetts may be relied upon as certain.

INCREASE OF TRAFFIC.

The ratio of increase on the lines of Massachusetts, has kept pace with the extension of the system. At a reduction of charges, and a diminution of cost, the business has doubled at least once in eight years, and this increase promises to be progressive. Occasionally, a disastrous year, an error in policy, or a rival line, causes a temporary reaction; but the vacuum is soon filled, and the traffic again overflows. The question most frequently discussed by directors is, "how many new cars and engines shall we order?" and "how shall we enlarge our depots?" At first, two or three acres were thought ample for a first class depot; a few years after this, the author was thought extravagant in advocating twenty for the Western and Fitchburgh lines. The question now is, "will twenty be sufficient?" The London and York propose fifty for a metropolitan depot; and when we consider the result produced by the combined effects of reduced charges, extension lines, and the growth of the country, a liberal provision for depot grounds will be found most judicious. Our commercial cities provide extensive water fronts, miles of stores, docks, piers and levees for the reception of navigation; and when railroads are to receive and deliver, as they now do annually at Boston, half a million of tons, and the ratio of increase is ascertained, space must be provided.

THE POLICY OF MASSACHUSETTS IN HER CHARTERS.

The great question of the Warren and Charles River Bridges, inspired Massachusetts with a salutary caution in granting her charters. The Charles River Bridge claimed under a general grant of a toll for a long term of years, an exclusive right, which, if enforced, would have given the proprietors in 1844 a net income of \$65,000, or about one hundred and fifty per cent per annum. This case was decided about the date of our earliest railroads. To secure the public, and obviate all questions for the future, Massachusetts has reserved to herself the right of reducing tolls, if the income exceeds ten per cent, and a right of purchase after twenty years, on payment of the principal and ten per cent income, deducting the tolls received. England has been more liberal in her charters. In a country where money produces less than in Massachusetts, she allows the income to reach ten per cent, reserves the right to buy, but provides that in such event, she will, if the road earns ten per cent, pay therefor a capital that shall produce ten per cent at twenty-five years purchase, or at the rate of four per cent per annum. She virtually stipulates to pay a premium of one hundred and fifty per cent to each successive enterprise,

* With respect to the repairs of the road and track, the annual average cost in Massachusetts, has been less than \$400 per mile of railroad, which is considerably less than the average annual repairs of the Erie canal; as the principal part of the repairs is independent of the amount of traffic, consisting in renewal of culverts, bridges, sleepers, embankments, and clearing the cuts, but a trifling amount of repairs will fall on an increase of traffic.

In 1839, the entire expense of repairs, inclusive of supervision, on the New York canals, were \$421,678 90, an average per mile of \$658 87, losing not far from 26-100 per ton a mile, and the cost of freight not far from 90-100 of a cent per mile.

while Massachusetts is to pay par and ten per cent. A successful stock, therefore, rises in England from one hundred to two hundred and fifty, while in Massachusetts it has in no case exceeded forty per cent premium. But the stimulus in England is too great; it has apparently crazed the whole community, both male and female. In Massachusetts it is sufficient to enlist the wary capitalist, and the enterprising and spirited merchant, who expects an accession of trade, as well as large dividends; it has created a race of engineers, managers, and contractors, who look for business to branches and extension lines, some of whom embark largely in the new lines as proprietors, as well as contractors, and both directly and indirectly impel the system onward.

One topic remains untouched, which has occasioned much discussion on both sides of the Atlantic, particularly during years of depression, but it would be impossible to compress it within this article. It is a topic of deep interest. Mountains may be tunnelled or surmounted, deep rivers may be bridged, and remote regions united by iron bands, but tariffs of charges may be interposed, more impassable than mountains, streams, and boundaries. An injudicious tariff, if too high, may prohibit trade, or throw it on rival cities; or if too low, may undermine the prosperity of the improvement itself.

The tendency of the rates has been rapidly downward, and with beneficial results, both in Massachusetts and in England; the reduction of the cost of transit at least one-half, demonstrates the power to carry with profit at half the original rates; reduced charges will open new fountains, but the charges will vary on the different lines, and the subject may be better discussed in a future number.*

E. H. D.

Art. III.—NEW YORK AND ERIE RAILROAD.

WE have for a length of time intended to present to our readers some notice of this important work, which, considered in relation to the commerce of the city of New York, connecting it as by one link with the lakes, and thence with the mighty valleys and rivers of the west, is especially worthy of notice in a work like this; and which, by its length, its topographical relations, and the number and extent of its tributary branches, is, in this era of steam-power avenues, entitled to be considered the greatest work of the age.

The public we suppose are not yet prepared fully to appreciate the merits and importance of this undertaking; nor do we feel prepared by any means to do it the justice which it appears to us to deserve. The more we reflect on the bearings of it on the interest of the city of New York, and the long line of country through which it passes, and compare its tendencies with those of similar works extending from the Atlantic cities, the more are we convinced that its importance is not, and cannot yet be, generally appreciated. Before its magnitude or its utility can be properly estimated or felt, it must be completed with a double track, occupied by ten thousand cars, and transporting thousands of passengers, and many thousands of

The railroads of Massachusetts are eminently successful. The net income of 1845 will average nearly eight per cent, and the stocks average about ten per cent above par.

tons of commodities daily. When it shall yield to this metropolis results like these, sustained and increased by the growing population on its extended line, and beyond its western terminus, we shall be better able to speak of its value, of the foresight evinced by those who projected it, and of the perseverance and exertions by which it has been preserved from oft impending ruin, and brought into a condition to be completed without much further delay.

It is no part of our present purpose to say anything of individuals who have been concerned, either in bringing forward the project originally, or in surmounting the difficulties which have been encountered at every stage of its progress; it being our object merely to make such observations respecting the work as an examination of the publications of the company, and of other documents, may suggest. These publications and documents are very numerous, and extend over a period of about fourteen years, since the enactment of its charter in April, 1832.

In pursuing this object, we naturally refer, in the first place, to the charter of the road, though had we time to spare for them, the events and measure which preceded and led to it, would well deserve some notice. The charter contains in its provisions much evidence that the subject to which it relates had been carefully studied and well considered. It was created at an early period in the history of railways, and when the subject was little familiar to the public. It however contains all the essential privileges and provisions for such an undertaking. The greatness of the work, and of its probable results, appear to have been clearly foreseen; and to reserve its vast benefits to the people of the State and of the city of New York, its route from the city to the lake was confined within this State. It authorized the construction of a single, double, or treble railway, but required the company first to complete a single track from the city of New York, (on the east side of the Hudson to the place of crossing,) or from some point on the western shore of the river in Rockland county, to Lake Erie, before laying the rails for a second track. It is obvious, that with the double advantage of navigation on the river for the transport of commodities to and from all the wharves of the city, and of a railway both for passengers and tonnage, on the east shore of the Hudson from the crossing at Piermont, extending eventually, perhaps, the whole length of the island, all the benefits of this vast thoroughfare may be secured to this metropolis, and in such manner as to insure the greatest possible economy, and convenience both with respect to travel and business. And while we commend the foresight which dictated this part of the charter, we cannot refrain from expressing the opinion that a diversion of the line from the route thus prescribed, or a too long delay of that portion of it which is to penetrate the city, would be found to be alike inconsistent with the interests of the stockholders and those of the public. Before a single track of the road is completed to Lake Erie, the importance of this plan and termination of the work will, we doubt not, be generally felt. It is to New York city the most important feature in the undertaking—the most valuable provision of the charter. And we venture to predict that the first commercial city of the Union, having control and possession of the largest and most important avenue to the distant interior, will not dispense with the advantages and benefits of its main starting point and termination. The grandeur, as well as the economy and advantage in every respect, of a continuous line of railway 450 miles in length, under one charter, pro-

tected throughout by the same laws, subject to the same police, the same system of management, the same rates of charges, the same regulations, and the same responsibility, will come, we doubt not, to be duly appreciated by the public. A main railway of the first class, 450 miles in extent, stretching from New York to the lakes, with tributary branches, in the aggregate perhaps of equal length, contemplated as an appendage and commercial arm of the city, is a grand, and even sublime object. No other state can possess a like avenue from the Atlantic to the inland seas of the west, within its own jurisdiction—no other single charter can embrace the extent and terminations of such a line—no other city can enjoy the benefits which it is the part of such a work to confer.

Of this work, as it advances westward, about three-fourths of the line is laid in the valleys of large rivers and their tributaries, viz: the Ramapo, the Delaware, the Susquehanna, the Chemung, the Canisteo, the Genessee, and the Allegany, along which the grades are very favorable. The ridges between the principal valleys require, in some instances, grades as high as sixty feet to the mile, or a little more than a rise of one foot in a hundred linear feet. But taken as a whole, whether considered in relation to travel or tonnage, the surface of the work in respect to grades is remarkably favorable. The acclivities occur at such distances as to admit of a very economical arrangement of motive power with reference to the tonnage to be conveyed.

In the construction of the road, it was made to differ in one important particular, as our readers probable are aware, from other railways in this part, at least, of the country, viz: in the width of the track; the gauge on this work being six feet, and on others four feet eight inches. So far as we have formed any opinion upon the subject, it is in favor of the wide track. Among the reasons for this opinion, we maintain the following only, though the discussion to which the seven feet gauge of the Great Western Railway in England gave rise, might enable us to add others of still greater importance. A track six feet in width as compared with 4 $\frac{1}{2}$ feet, admits of proportionably wider and more commodious cars. Their greater length of axle, produces an equable instead of an oscillating motion from side to side, so common on the narrow track, whereby the centre of gravity is thrown alternately from side to side, by which the engines and rails are injured, and the danger of running off the track greatly increased. The importance of these considerations can hardly be over-estimated, and we apprehend that were the question now open on other important railways in the northern and middle states, they would adopt the wide gauge.

We observe among the prudential and economical arrangements of this company, what we apprehend is original and peculiar, and on a road of such length, of great and permanent consequence, viz: that in the title deeds obtained for the roadway a covenant is contained, by which the granters are bound to erect, and forever maintain, the fences on both sides of the road. By this means a very large primary outlay, and permanent annual expenses are avoided, as well as the liability to damages for cattle killed on the road.

Our limits do not permit us to pursue this subject further at present, except to add a few remarks on the causes which have so long retarded the work, and the chief sources of the opposition it has met with. The deficiency of available means has from time to time arrested and delayed the work through a protracted period of general embarrassment, in the course

of which the public works of the state, and numerous corporate undertakings, have been suspended. The original subscription to the stock, in the city of New York, was rendered nearly nugatory by the great fire of December, 1835, and commercial revulsion of 1837. The payments on that subscription appear to have been between \$300,000 and \$400,000. The payments by subscribers on the line of the road amount to near \$1,200,000. The loan of three millions from the state was subject to a large reduction, owing to the necessity of selling the stock when the price in the market was greatly depressed. Nothing in the history of the undertaking is more remarkable than that, with a floating debt of about \$600,000, and its affairs in the hands of assignees for a considerable period, it should have been preserved from total failure. Fortunately the eastern division had been got into use, and being skilfully managed, and proving more productive than was generally anticipated, earned a considerable surplus beyond the current expenses of the company.

It is to most persons matter of surprise that the company which has so long striven to promote and complete this work, should have met with so much opposition as it appears to have encountered. The mystery is solved by referring both to the open and covert hostility of the political views of party men and demagogues, and to the interests and jealousies of the great northern route to Lake Erie, of particular towns on the Hudson, and of various rival corporations and projects. It is, we presume, owing to the evil influence which has emanated from these sources, that even the city of New York has been politically, or so far as its delegates to the legislature have represented it in this respect, been, with scarcely an exception, opposed to every legislative enactment in its favor. They were in like manner, owing to a similar influence, opposed to the construction of the Erie Canal. Many politicians then, as in more recent times, were opposed to internal improvements and state debts. In the present case, the local interests arrayed against the construction of this great rival avenue as a whole, and other interests affected by particular routes and locations, were sufficient to stimulate all the elements of hostility which could be roused by misrepresentation, detraction, and political demagoguism.

Happily the concern has, by the present law, been brought into a state to be resumed and carried forward; and, the citizens having subscribed the requisite funds, there seems to be a fair prospect that the unfinished portions of the work will be pushed on and completed at an early day. The task of finishing the work is easy, compared with that of doing what has been accomplished. The location of about 350 miles has been settled, and the roadway obtained chiefly by gratuitous cessions. A perusal of the several reports of the directors must, we apprehend, satisfy the reader that the work heretofore done is worth all it has cost, and that the undertaking, if carried out with fidelity and skill, will not disappoint the most sanguine expectations of the stockholders.*

* We have received, since this article was written and in type, from a gentleman perfectly familiar with all the circumstances and facts connected with the subject, a clear and comprehensive account of the early history, present condition, and future prospects of this great commercial enterprise, which we shall probably publish in the forthcoming number of this Magazine.

ART. IV.—THE PIRACY OF CAPTAIN KIDD.

THE commerce of the present day between maritime countries enjoys few advantages over that of earlier periods more marked than what it derives from the suppression of piracy. From the earliest dawn of modern trade until comparatively a very recent date, embracing the most authentic and interesting portion of naval history, sea-robbers have been the scourge of navigators. In the time of Pompey, the trade of the Romans was so destroyed by them that from apprehension of a famine, in consequence, that general was despatched with a large fleet and military force to extirpate them—being invested for the purpose with absolute power over the whole Mediterranean, and of the whole of the adjacent shores four hundred furlongs inland. The investiture of such authority would of itself show the enormity of the evil which it was sought to eradicate, if we were uninformed of its extent more particularly. The fact, however, is stated, that the pirates at that time possessed a thousand galleys, and were masters of four hundred cities. In the seventeenth century, when the discovery of the passage, around Africa, to the East Indies, and of America, had given a mighty impulse to navigation, there sprung up a race of freebooters who carried on their depredations on a scale hardly inferior to that of the Cicilians, who were subdued by Pompey. The principal seat of their operations was the Spanish settlements in the West Indies, and South America, where they were known as *Buccaneers*.* They not only plundered ships, but they ravaged cities and attacked fortified places on shore. Thus in 1671, after attacking the castle of Chagres, they crossed the isthmus and captured the city of Panama, after a desperate battle, in which six hundred Spaniards fell. They carried away one hundred and seventy-four mules laden with spoil, and six hundred prisoners bearing similar burthens. They were composed of natives of the different countries of Europe, but principally England and France. Some whose names are familiar to us, where of the number, such as Dampier and Wafer, whose relations of their voyages are well known.

The English Colonies in North America were frequently resorted to by them for various purposes. A Captain Cook came to Virginia in 1683, to dispose of his prize goods.† After they were finally broken up in 1697, some went to the Carolinas to enjoy their ill-gotten wealth, and others settled in Rhode Island, and on the south side of Long Island, whose descendants enjoy among us a respectability more the result of their own merit than that of their ancestors.

Buccaneering was peculiarly the result of the pretensions of the crowns of Portugal and Spain, which, after the discovery of America, had, under the authority of a bull of pope Alexander VI., divided between themselves all the newly discovered lands in both the Indies to the exclusion of other powers. France, England and the Netherlands, the only remaining maritime nations, connived at a system of plunder, which, while it enriched them, weakened the power of their usurping neighbors. When the inhabitants of these countries met in the West Indies, all difficulties between

* A name derived from *boucan*, a Carib term for *barbecu'd* meat, and applied to them because many of them had been engaged in the business of curing meat in that way, before betaking themselves to this life of rapine and conquest.—*Burney's History of the Buccaneers of America*.

† Wafer's Voyage, p. 44.

their princes at home were forgotten, and they banded together under the associated name of "Guards of the Coast," against the common victims, the Spaniards. Those nations even encouraged it by granting letters of marque and reprisal, without requiring process of condemnation of prizes, or otherwise regulating their exercise. In 1586, Sir Francis Drake sacked the city of Saint Domingo, and Lancaster, who commanded the first expedition of the English to the East Indies, had recommended himself to that command by an equally lawless attack on Pernambuco, in 1594.* When complaint was made of transactions of this kind, by the Spanish ambassador to Elizabeth, she replied that the Spaniards had produced that state of things by their injustice, and that she did not understand why either her subjects, or those of an other European prince, should be debarred from trading to the Indies. Piracies on her own coast she promptly punished, as in the case of Clinton and Purser, who were hanged at Wapping during her reign.†

While the buccaneers were depredating upon the commerce of the West Indies, others were similarly engaged on the coast of Africa, and in the Indian Ocean. Of the latter, Captain Thomas Tew, of New York, was one of the most daring and successful. After acquiring a fortune in this vocation he retired to Rhode Island, but was subsequently induced to return to his old mode of life, and to the old scenes of his piracies. He was finally shot in an engagement with a ship of the Great Mogul, having his belly so torn that he held his bowels in his hands. Another was Captain Avery, an Englishman, who, after robbing the India ships, falsified the old adage, of "honor among thieves," by carrying off the shares of booty of a large portion of his crew, first to Boston, and then to England. He met with no better fortune in the end himself, for the merchants, his factors, to whom he entrusted his gold and gems, cheated him in turn, and prevented him from reclaiming his property through fear of exposure.

These pirates of the Indian seas, had their retreats in the island of Madagascar, where many of them retired with great wealth, amalgamated with the dusky daughters of that clime, imitated the habits of eastern princes in erecting walled palaces, and keeping well filled seraglios, and raised a hybrid progeny, who were accidentally discovered living there some many years afterwards.‡

The suppression of the buccaneers and pirates of the East at length became an object of importance to all the European nations. As the American Colonies of the English, French, and Dutch increased, and the commerce of those nations with the East became enlarged, the power of these buccaneers became correspondingly injurious to them from its indiscriminate exercise, for they intercepted the regular traders in their routes both to India and America. Reasons of state also influenced them to vigorous measures to put them down. The latter part of the seventeenth century was thus the period of a combined and systematic effort of the powers of Europe, which resulted in the complete destruction of the freebooters, so called. Piracy, however, continued to be followed very successfully, though not with the impunity which it had previously enjoyed.

* Hakluyt, (Ed. 1809-12.) Vol. IV., page 209.

† The Dutch were equally severe against pirates on their own shores. In the beginning of the seventeenth century, sixty of them were hung at one time.—*Mercurio Francois*.

‡ Captain Johnson's History of the Pirates, Vol. I., page 58.

But as it is not our purpose to sketch its entire history, we will pursue it no further, having made these preliminary remarks for the purpose of introducing to the notice of the reader, Captain William Kidd, who was sent out to capture pirates, but who himself suffered the pirate's fate instead. Thus much however may be said, that the first part of the eighteenth century, constituting a period of twenty-five years after the extinction of the buccaneers, witnessed as daring robberies on the sea as any committed by them, and that many of them were projected in New York, and the New England Colonies, and the ships fitted out from thence for the purpose. Nor were these colonies alone implicated with them; Virginia and the Carolinas provided them a market for their goods, and even the Quakers of Pennsylvania tolerated occasional visits by those who spent their money freely among them.*

Circumstances, apart from the crimes of Kidd, have combined to invest his name with interest from the time of his execution up to the present moment, especially in this meridian. His connection with the original enterprise with the government, and others of the colony of New York, and with the king, and other high functionaries of Great Britain—his return to our shores with a larger amount of treasury than was ever known to have been brought here, but still exaggerated in the public mind much beyond the truth—and the attempt made by political parties, both in England and America, one to heighten the enormity of his offences in order to affect its opponents, and the other to shield itself by the bold sacrifice of the man who had betrayed it, at least, into difficulty, served to make his name a terror at the time, and a choice theme for the ballad-monger, to transmit to posterity.†

He thus became the prince of pirates, and the *nom de guerre* of the race. If any such had landed on our shores he was at once associated with Kidd, and each piratical craft that entered our rivers, with his vessel. The mischief which this has produced is not inconsiderable. Many have diligently sought Kidd's stolen treasures, in lands on which he never trod, and in waters where, after he turned pirate, his vessels never sailed. Smith, the historian of New York, says, that at his day some credulous people had ruined themselves in searching for pirate's money.‡ To dispel, if possible, this delusion, which still exists among us, and to collect together the facts connected with his piratical acts, and dispersed in a large number of manuscripts and printed notices, is the object of the following pages.

William Kidd—in the ballad erroneously called "Robert Kidd"—was a trader from New York, where he had married, and his wife and children had their permanent residence. During the war between England and France, in the early part of the reign of William III., he commanded a privateer in the West Indies, and distinguished himself for his skill and

* Williamson's North Carolina, Chap. VIII., and Watson's Annals of Philadelphia. Vol. II., 216.

† "Dr. G——g, knows who the person was, who was with Kidd more than once some few days before his execution, and dealt so freely with him as to advise him to charge two lords by name, with somewhat that was material, which he said was the only way could save his life; and the more to provoke the poor wretch, swore to him that those lords and their friends were restless in soliciting to have him hanged." This extract from a publication of the time, vindicating Lord Bellomont, entitled "A full account of the proceedings in relation to Captain Kidd, London, 1701," shows, in the language in which Kidd is referred to, and in the facts which it records, the temper at that time of the two factions towards him.

‡ History of New York, page 93.

bravery in two engagements with the French. As we have already observed, privateering was not at that time conducted on the strict principles by which it is at this day regulated, and was what has been often termed, very properly, as it then existed, legalized piracy. The ideas of right thus formed by Kidd, were doubtless very loose, and such as would not now be tolerated, but may be offered in extenuation of his subsequent conduct, as the legitimate fruit of the immoral pursuit in which he had been engaged. On the 14th May, 1691, the General Assembly of the Colony of New York, on the recommendation of the Governor and Council, directed one hundred and fifty pounds to be paid him for the good services done this province in his attending here with his vessels before his excellency's arrival.* It is said this service was as a privateer. In 1695, he sailed from New York to London, where he met Robert Livingston, the first of that name who had immigrated to America, and who had gone there to settle some matters with the government.

Early in that year, Richard Coote, Earl of Bellomont, had been named by the king to be governor of New York, with a view, as he was considered a man of firmness and integrity, to suppress piracy and smuggling, both of which were encouraged in the colony, and it was said, even by Governor Fletcher, his predecessor, and by Mr. Nicoll, one of the governor's council. Previous to his departure, which did not take place, in consequence of delay in issuing his commission, until the latter part of the year 1697, he consulted Colonel Livingston, in regard to the complaints made against New York, who recommended Kidd as one who well knew the haunts of the pirates, and the principal persons connected with them, and as a proper person in other respects to be put in command of one of the king's ships to go against them. The proposal was made to the king by the earl, and by him referred to the Admiralty, who, objecting, it was abandoned. But the king gave his approval to the fitting out of a private armed ship, to be commanded by Kidd, for the same purpose. In pursuance of this arrangement, Bellomont induced Lord Chancellor Somers, the Duke of Shrewsbury, the Earl of Rumney, Oxford, Lord High Admiral of England, and Sir Edmund Harrison, a rich merchant, to unite with Livingston and Kidd, in sending out, at an expense of six thousand pounds, a ship called the *Adventure Galley*, one-fifth of the expense being defrayed by Kidd and Livingston. Kidd himself was averse to the enterprise, but Bellomont insisted that he should go, and told him that his own vessel would be stopped in the river by some great men if he did not go.† He however consented, and two commissions were issued to him, one from the Admiralty, dated 10th December, 1695, as a privateer against the French, and the other under the great seal, dated the 26th of January following, empowering him to apprehend Thomas Tew, William Maze, John Ireland, Thomas Wake, and all other pirates whom he should meet on the coasts of America or elsewhere, and seize "such merchandise, money, goods, and wares as should be found on board or with them." After the sailing of the ship, and on the 27th May, 1697, a grant under the great seal passed, that the ships and goods, and other things from the above-named and other pirates should be the sole property of the persons at whose charge the vessel was first fitted out, as far as the king might grant the same; while they, on their part, entered into a covenant to render an account under oath of the

* Journal, (Ed. 1764,) Vol. I., pages 6 and 13.

† Testimony of Colonel Hewson: State Trials, (Fol. Ed.,) Vol. V., page 826.

seizures, and to yield the king a tenth part of all that they should be entitled to under the royal grant. Kidd and Livingston gave bonds to Bellemont for the faithful execution of the trust.*

Thus it appears that the king and the Lord Chancellor of England, the governor of the colony of New York, and several of the nobility were interested in the speculation, at the head of which Kidd was now unwillingly placed; and that in addition to the letters of marque and reprisals against the enemies of England, he held an extraordinary commission, such as has seldom since been granted to a private armed ship, to capture pirates. By the law of nations, any person may take them wherever they may be found without any commission, but in this case it was issued apparently for the purpose of founding a grant of the property found in their possession. So unusual a course gave color to the charges which were afterwards made against the high functionaries interested in the interprise, and produced articles of impeachment against them by the House of Commons.† It is not an unreasonable conclusion to arrive at, from the circumstances attending the setting forth of the expedition, in connection with the result, that Kidd belonged to that portion of subordinate officials who think it more laudable to show their zeal for their king than for their country or their God, rather than to the class of desperadoes whom it was the professed object of the expedition to disperse.

Kidd sailed from Plymouth in April, 1696, in the *Adventure Galley* of thirty guns and eighty men, for New York, where he arrived in July following, with a French ship which he had captured on the passage. On his arrival he invited men to enter the service by offering them portions of the booty, after deducting forty shares for himself and the ship, and by that means increased the number of his crew to 155. He then sailed for Madeira, where he arrived on the 6th of February following—thence to Bonavista, where he took in salt—thence to St. Jago, where he bought provisions—thence to Madagascar, where he took in water and provisions—thence to Malabar, about the first of June—thence to Joanna—thence to Mahala, and thence to Joanna again—and thence to the Red Sea, and in July, 1697, to Bab's-Key, a small island at the entrance of that sea. Here was, in the outset, by leaving our coasts immediately, a plain departure from the objects of the expedition, which was publicly announced to be the destruction of the pirates in the American seas, and especially at New York.

Up to this time no vessel had been captured by him since he left New York, embracing a period of nearly a year. It is not unreasonable to suppose he felt disappointed. Before this time, too, no overt act appears to have been committed by him, and no disposition to transcend his powers to have been evinced. Now, however, he informed his men that he was lying in wait for the Mocha fleet, and that he would ballast his vessel with gold and silver. About the middle of August, the fleet, fourteen in number, convoyed by a Dutch and an English ship, came down, and Kidd set out in pursuit of them, but on overtaking them he was compelled, after exchanging a few shots, to retire.

We wish to follow the cruiser "as he sailed," in order that his whole route being distinctly followed, we may be able both to discover the real

* Broadhead's Final Report. London Documents.

† It was said that a similar grant and commission had been given to Sir Robert Holmes, in the reign of James II.

motives which actuated him, and to ascertain the amount of property which came into his possession, and finally to see what became of his vessel and booty; and for that reason we will be more particular than otherwise would be necessary or interesting. The change, if it did not exist before he left New York, had now come over his purpose. Disappointed again in his designs upon the fleet, he sailed for Carawar, on the coast of Malabar, and in the way, about the 20th of September, fell in with, and took, a small Moorish vessel called "The Maiden," belonging to Aden, commanded by an Englishman of the name of Parker. Not realizing much from his capture, he ordered some of the men on board to be hoisted by their arms, and beaten with naked cutlasses, in order to disclose what money they had, but to little purpose. He obtained only a bale of coffee, sixty pounds of pepper, and thirty pounds of myrrh, some wearing apparel, and about twenty pieces of Arabian gold, which he divided among his men, giving two pieces to each mess. The myrrh was used in the place of pitch, and the pepper divided among the men.

After remaining a short time at Carawar, he put to sea again, and encountering a Portuguese man-of-war, engaged in a fight with her for several hours, and then hauled off with ten of his men wounded. He then went to Porto—thence to the coast of Malabar again, where, on one of the islands, his cooper having been killed by the natives, he served them in pretty much the same way as the officers of our late South Sea Exploring Expedition served the Fejeeans; burning their houses and shooting one of the murderers. About this time he fell in with a ship called the Royal Captain, with the commander of which he exchanged civilities. They then parted; but the spirit of robbery, had, however, been excited among his men, and complaints were made by some of them, and especially by one William Moore, a gunner, that he had allowed the Royal Captain to escape. An altercation taking place in consequence between him and this man, in a fit of passion he struck him on the head with a bucket, inflicting a severe wound, of which he died the next day. This is the murder for which he was afterwards tried and convicted. As the ballad has it,

"I murdered William Moore,
And left him in his gore,
Not many leagues from shore,
As I sailed."

This transaction occurred on the 30th day of October, 1697; and from it Kidd has obtained a character for barbarity which the circumstances of the case do not establish. His cruise was marked by no other act showing a disregard of life; and this one has some justification in the circumstance that it was caused by the piratical disposition of the deceased, and in consequence of an opposite spirit on the part of Kidd. The instrument used shows too that it was not a premeditated act, and gives color to his plea that he had no intention at the time to kill him.

Being still on the coast of Malabar, on the 17th of November, he fell in with another Moorish vessel of 150 tons burthen, from Surat, commanded by a Dutchman of the name of Mitchell, and hoisting French colors, the Moors did the like. He then captured her, and ordered a Frenchman by the name of Le Roy, who was a passenger on board of the vessel, to act the captain, and to pretend to have a French pass. He then declared the ship, which he called "The November," because she was taken in that month, a prize to England, as if observing forms of legal authority, and

intending to claim for his conduct, as he did on his trial, the protection of the commission authorizing him to take French ships. From this vessel he took two horses and some quilts, which he sold at Malabar, and the proceeds of which he divided among his men, and ten or twelve bales of cotton. The vessel itself he carried to Madagascar. In December he captured a Moorish ketch of fifty tons burthen, from which he obtained thirty tubs of sugar, tobacco, and myrrh, and a bale of coffee, and then turned her adrift. The goods were divided among the men. In January, he met, near Callicut, a Portuguese ship from Bengal, and took from her two chests of opium, thirty jars of butter, a ton of wax, half a ton of iron, a hundred bags of rice, two chests of East India goods, and some powder, estimated in all to be worth four or five hundred pounds. The opium he sold on the coast, and the produce he divided among the men. The ship was sunk. In the same month he made his great prize in the capture of an Armenian vessel of 400 tons burthen, called the *Quedagh Merchant*, commanded by an Englishman named Wright. He disposed of a large portion of the goods taken from her, on the coast, to the value of £12,000, which he shared with his crew, reserving forty shares, as stipulated, for himself and owners. While thus disposing of these goods, he frequently plundered the Banian merchants, with whom he traded, and in that way added about five hundred pieces of eight to his booty. He then sailed with the captured ship to Madagascar, where he arrived in the beginning of May, 1798, and where he divided with his men the goods which remained, and which yielded three bales to a share. Each share from this vessel was calculated to have amounted to nearly two hundred pounds in money, and the same amount in goods, or £400 for each share, making the entire prize of about £64,000 value, or £32,000 in money, and the like amount in goods, and Kidd's portion in both of the value of £16,000, the whole number of shares being about 160. Thus, it will be observed, that of this rich prize, containing the great bulk of his spoil, the larger portion went to the men.

When Kidd arrived at Madagascar with the *Quedagh Merchant*, he found there the *Motha* frigate, an East India Company's ship, turned pirate, and then called the *Resolution*, and commanded by an Englishman, one Culliford. Instead of apprehending this man and his crew, as it was his duty to have done, and as they themselves were fearful at first he would do, he immediately entered into friendly communication with them, furnished Culliford with four cannon, and received in return four or five hundred pounds in money.

In justification of his seizure of the *Quedagh Merchant*, Kidd pretended on the trial, and there was some slight evidence in support of the allegation, that the vessel sailed under a French pass, and that he was, therefore, authorized by his first commission to seize her. The pass, however, was not produced, and he accounted for its absence by averring that it was with some other papers which had been taken from him when he was apprehended in America, and which were kept from him by Lord Bellomont. It appears, however, that he took no pains to have that or any other ship condemned, except the French vessel captured on his voyage to New York. His excuse, therefore, if true, was not sufficient to exculpate him from the crime of piracy so justly chargeable from this omission.

Kidd burnt his ship, the *Adventure Galley*, at Madagascar, and went on

board of the Quedagh Merchant,* refusing 20,000 rupees which her Armenian merchant owners offered him for her ransom. He exchanged also at Madagascar, the ammunition, arms, and other furniture of the Adventure Galley, for forty bales of calicoes, silks, and other goods, five or six tons of sugar, forty pounds weight of dust and bar gold, and eighty pounds of bar silver.†

Ninety-five of his men left him there, and joined Culliford, and as they had the largest part of the booty, the amount which reached America must have been comparatively small. He induced, however, some few others, five or six in number, to join him, and then sailed for the West Indies, where he arrived in April or May, 1699, in distress for provisions, which he fruitlessly endeavoured to obtain at Anguilla and St. Thomas. He succeeded at length, by means of one Henry Bolton, a merchant of Antigua, whom he met at Mona, in obtaining some from Curacoa. The president and council of Nevis, being advised of his presence in the West Indies, immediately despatched information of it to the government in England, and sent the Queensborough man-of-war in pursuit of him. This was done in pursuance of orders previously received from the board of trade, declaring him a pirate, in consequence more especially of his capture of the Quedagh Merchant, news of which had been sent to England by the East India Company in August, 1698. Circulars had been sent to the governors of all the different plantations in America, with orders to seize him at the first opportunity.

His movements now became important. He had at Anguilla learnt, for the first time, that he had been proclaimed a pirate. We have followed him from his departure from New York in the winter of 1696—7, until his return to the American coast, and have observed the property which he had attained. What became of both is an interesting inquiry at least to the money-diggers. On receiving his supply of provisions from Curacoa, he purchased from Bolton the sloop Antonio, commanded by Samuel Wood of Philadelphia, in which he placed the goods, and bullion, and gold dust, which he had received at Madagascar in exchange for the articles which he sold from the Adventure Galley. The rest of his booty, consisting of about one hundred and fifty bales of goods, seventy or eighty tons of sugar, ten tons of junk iron, fourteen or fifteen anchors, and forty tons of salt-petre, he left in the Quedagh Merchant, with twenty guns in the hold, and thirty mounted. Leaving the Quedagh Merchant in charge of Bolton and twenty-two men, on the south side of Hispaniola, he sailed in the Antonio with forty men for New York. This division of the property, and the leaving of the Moorish ship in the West Indies, prove that Kidd was not sure of a good reception by Bellomont, though his returning home at all, displays a reliance by him on the protection of the influential persons connected with him originally. As he approached New York, he proceeded therefore with great caution. He first put into Delaware Bay, at Lewistown, to make some slight repairs, and take in supplies.‡ News soon spread of his arrival on the coast, and a sloop, well manned, set out to take him.§ This was early in June, 1699. He then

* Account of the Proceedings in relation to Capt. Kidd, p. 11.

† According to Kidd himself, in his examination before the Earl of Bellomont on his arrival at Boston, communicated to the National Intelligencer of 22d January, 1845, by Col. Peter Force.

‡ Several persons were apprehended for furnishing these supplies.

§ Watson's Annals of Philadelphia, Vol. II., p. 215.

sailed round the east end of Long Island, into the Sound as far as Oyster Bay. In a letter to Bellomont, he states his reason for not going directly to the place where the governor was, that "the clamorous and false stories that have been repeated of me, made me fearful of visiting or coming into any harbor till I could hear from your lordship." At Oyster Bay he communicated with his family and friends in New York, and in a day or two afterwards, a Mr. Emot came down from there, and was taken on board the sloop. Kidd probably learnt here that Lord Bellomont was on a visit to Boston. He therefore turned about, and went to Rhode Island, where he landed Emot, whom he despatched to Boston to engage from Bellomont his safety if he should land. This was given on condition that what Emot said was true. In the meantime, Kidd proceeded to Block Island, where he was joined by his wife and children, in company with a Mr. Clark. After answering Bellomont's letter, he sailed over to Gardiner's Island, for the purpose of landing Mr. Clark on his return to New York. Kidd himself did not land at Gardiner's Island, but he left with Mr. Gardiner a portion of his treasure, which was afterwards delivered up to the commissioners appointed by the governor to receive it at Boston. He then sailed for Boston in the Antonio, where he arrived on the 1st day of July. Kidd was suffered to be at large until the 6th of July, when he was apprehended,* the sloop appraised, and all his property taken possession of by the commissioners, who returned an account, including the treasure delivered to Mr. Gardiner, of 1,111 ounces of gold, 2,353 ounces of silver, 57 bags of sugar, 41 bales of goods, and 17 pieces of canvass.

It is remarkable, that a portion of this property was brought on board of the Antonio by Mrs. Kidd, and afterwards transferred to her lodgings in the house of Duncan Campbell of Boston, where it was seized by the commissioners. Besides several pieces of plate, she brought with her from New York two hundred and sixty dollars in money of her own, and twenty-five English crowns belonging to her maid. This circumstance, taken in connection with the fact that his children also accompanied his wife, seems to show that Kidd contemplated the probable event of returning to the Quedagh Merchant, and had sent for his family in order to be prepared for such a turn in his affairs. Mrs. Kidd petitioned the governor and council to have this property returned, and an order was on the 19th of July made, granting her request.†

On the 17th of July news reached Boston, that after taking out her goods, which were carried to Curacoa, the mate left in charge of the Quedagh Merchant had set her on fire. This information was communicated by Captain Nicholas Evertse, who saw the ship on fire near Hispaniola.‡

From this narrative of Kidd's cruise, derived from the evidence given on his trial, from the pamphlet vindicating Bellomont, from his own letters and examination, and other authentic sources, it is apparent that he did not, on his return, either land on the shores, or sail in the waters of New York westward of Oyster Bay; that both his treasure and sloop

* Hutchinson says, (Vol. II., p. 119,) that when the officer arrested him, he attempted to draw his sword, but was prevented by a person in company.

† Massachusetts Records.

‡ Account of the proceedings in relation to Capt. Kidd, p. 10, and Report of the Commissioners of Trade and Plantations, in National Intelligencer, *ut supra*.

were carried to Boston, and that the other vessels in which he sailed, the Adventure Galley and Quedagh Merchant, were both destroyed by fire, one at Madagascar, the other near Hispaniola; and that the booty which he had collected otherwise than from the last named vessel, was inconsiderable.

On being advised of Kidd's arrest, the home government despatched a ship of war to take him to England. His case now began to awaken an interest in the public mind. The delay both in his apprehension after his reaching Boston, and in getting him home by the ministry,—for the ship ordered on that duty put back in consequence of a storm; and the partnership existing between him and several of the ministers, both served the purposes of excitement against the administration. He reached London on the 12th of April, 1700, but his trial did not take place until the 8th of May, 1701. He was found guilty on an indictment for the murder of Moore, the gunner, and on five separate indictments for piracy. Several of his men also were tried at the same time, some of whom were convicted, and others acquitted. He was sentenced to be hung, and in the same month was accordingly executed.

At the same time that the trial of Kidd was going on, the House of Commons were proceeding upon an impeachment of the Earl of Oxford and Lord Somers for certain high crimes and misdemeanors, one of which related to their connection with Kidd, and their agency in passing the commissions and grant, as prejudicial to the trade of the kingdom and dishonorable to the king. It was contended that the grant with the commission of Kidd, of the goods of the pirates, before their conviction, was contrary to the law of England and to the bill of rights; and that a grant of the goods of others, taken by them, was violative of the rights of property, which still belonged to the original owners notwithstanding the capture,—piracy working no change of title. To this, it was answered, that a pirate is *hostis humani generis*, and any person may destroy him and thereby gain a property in his goods; and that the grant of the king in this case of the property of others found in the possession of the pirates, was qualified and limited to such title as he might confer,—his title being to the goods of which no owners could be found.* The participation of the accused in the charge and profits of the expedition, authorized only by their own official acts, was highly censurable. On taking the vote, however, the House of Lords stood, contents 56—non-contents 23; thus acquitting them of the charges. The Earl of Bellomont died at New York, on the 5th of March, 1700—1, and before any measures were taken against him, as was supposed would be the case, at least to the extent of a motion to recall him from the provisional government.†

Kidd has left no particular account or justification of his conduct. He insisted, however, on his trial and after his conviction, that he was innocent; that he had been constrained by his men, and prevented by them from bringing his prizes to condemnation, and that he had captured no vessels except those which had French passports, or sailed under the French flag. He was, however, clearly guilty of piracy. He had failed to

* Evelyn is in error when he says, that the lords were impeached for "setting the great seal to the pardon of the arch pirate, who had turned pirate." His statement, however, shows what fuel was used to create the excitement. Dr. Holmes quotes Evelyn without remark. (*American Annals*, Vol. I., p. 473.)

† Chalmers's *Revolt of the Colonies*, Vol. I., p. 290.

have his prizes adjudicated upon for no sufficient reason—probably because he expected to be shielded from harm by the powerful individuals who had sent out his ship, on account of the care he had taken, as he stated in his letter to Bellomont from Block Island, to preserve the owners' interest. It was a vain expectation, for no one of them appears to have exerted himself in his behalf; but on the contrary all seem to have deserted him entirely, as the last means of repudiating his acts.

Within a few months past much has appeared in the public journals in regard to Kidd. A vessel sunk in the North river, at the base of the Dunderbergh, in the Highlands of Hudson river, has been supposed to be his ship, and to contain his treasury. In support of this opinion, two pamphlets have been published; one entitled, "An account of some of the traditions and experiments respecting Captain Kidd's piratical vessel," and the other, "A wonderful mesmeric revelation, giving an account of the discovery and description of a sunken vessel, near Caldwell's Landing, supposed to be that of the pirate Kidd, including an account of his character and death, at a distance of nearly three hundred miles from the place." The traditions referred to, assert that Kidd's vessel was chased up the river by some English men-of-war, and that in order to prevent her capture, those on board set fire to her, and escaped to the shore with as much of the money as they could carry; leaving, however, the largest portion of the gold and silver on board of the wreck, which sank at the entrance of the Highlands. Kidd and some of his men went further up the river in boats, and crossing over the country, reached Boston in that way. These traditions are garnished with sundry marvellous incidents, such as Kidd's running his sword through a child which had been left by its mother in a log house in the woods, as he and the men approached it; and an old Indian's coming all the way from Michigan, many years since, to point out to a young one who accompanied him, the place where the vessel which was loaded with gold had sunk. But the revelations of mesmerism are the most remarkable. A Mrs. Chester, the wife of Charles Chester, of Lyun, in Massachusetts, who declares that she had never heard anything about the sunken vessel, that she had never been on the Hudson in her life, that she had no knowledge of the history of Kidd, and that she had not been spoken to in reference to the subject before being mesmerized, being put in a magnetic state, revealed the sunken vessel at the proper place, and discovered through some extraordinary power that a pirate *had been* its captain, who was a large stout man—not tall—with a large chest, broad breast and shoulders, stout neck, a Roman-like nose, piercing eyes, head very broad, with enormous cautiousness, combativeness, and destructiveness—in a word, having the *tout ensemble* of a blood-thirsty *sibustier*. She also saw in the vessel, chests filled with bars of solid gold, heaps of precious stones, including diamonds, having been once in shot bags, which were now decayed; "gold watches like duck's eggs in a pond of water," a diamond necklace, and of course, near it, the remains of a beautiful young lady. This most singular revelation, as it is corroborated by the traditions, presents us with another triumph of animal magnetism, and must serve not only to advance that science, but to demonstrate how much safer it is to rely upon tradition, than upon record evidence made in courts of justice, held coterminously with the events, or official documents preserved in the public archives. In the present case, mesmerism has taken a progressive step; for it has not only disclosed what *is now*

to be found in the waters of the *Cocks-rack*, but also, who *was there* one hundred and forty-five years ago. In this new application of the science, we may hope not only to see the earth disemboweled, but the very forms and features of the ancient time brought up to our present view. What is more remarkable, if the traditions existed as is pretended, is, that no individual or company should have undertaken, when the witnesses were living, to raise the vessel, especially as so many persons were found near the time of the transactions of Kidd, credulous enough to ruin themselves in vain explorations after his money. But that, perhaps, was not an age of enterprise like the present, nor of—humbug.

Traditionary evidence can be relied on to a limited extent. It is generally based upon some truth. This truth resting in memory alone, is liable to draw to itself the speculations and surmises of each narrator, until they become impressions, and by that means are finally incorporated with it. Especially is this true, of the strange or the marvellous. It is, therefore, not improbable, that there may have been some foundation for the traditions in the present case. By an easy and natural growth in the manner to which we have referred, the sinking of a strange vessel in the Hudson river, and the dispersion of the crew on its banks, giving rise to the conjecture that it was a piratical craft, may have come to have been so established. By a slight gradation, and during an excitement in regard to digging for Kidd's money, which has prevailed at times to a great extent, the vessel and crew may have been supposed to have been his, and in process of time the conjectural connection of his name with the sunken vessel, may have assumed the absolute form in which it is now presented to us. It may even be that the ship said to have been found at the place designated is a piratical vessel, and if so, it would still more readily have been associated with Kidd. The only circumstances of which we have any account, justifying even such a supposition, are very slight; and we now allude to them, not for the purpose of affording a solution of the stories on this subject, but of showing that other events have transpired which may have given rise to those stories. They are these. About the time of Kidd's affair, another pirate, so called, named Bradish, was apprehended in Massachusetts, sent to England, and there tried and executed. He was the boatswain's mate of the ship *Adventure*, which left England in March, 1697—8, on a voyage to the Island of Borneo. Having stopped at Polonais on the way, for water, a portion of the crew took advantage of the absence of the captain and other officers, and some of the crew on shore, to run off with the ship. Bradish was chosen commander, and the money on board the ship, amounting to about \$40,000, divided among the mutineers. They do not appear to have captured any vessels. They finally sailed for America, and arrived at Long Island, "where," says a contemporaneous account, "the said Captain Bradish went ashore, carried the most of his money and some rings and jewels with him; committed them to the care of a gentleman on said island; and sent a pilot on board to remove the ship and bring her to an island called Gardner's Island; but the wind not favoring, ran over to Block Island." They then sent two men to Rhode Island to buy a sloop, who were seized by the authorities there, on suspicion of the ship being a pirate. Some sloops, however, coming alongside of the ship, they bought one of them, "and," continues the account, "hired another to transport them and their money, allowing the sloops' men to take what they pleased out of the ship, and got on shore, some in one place, and some in another; landing at farm-houses,

where they provided themselves with horses, and scattered into divers parts of the country; the captain and some others with him, coming into this province. Upon the first intelligence whereof, a proclamation was issued, and hue and cries sent through the province, and into the neighboring governments, to pursue and seize all such of them as could be found with their treasure. The captain with ten more of the company, are apprehended and in custody here, in order to a trial; who, upon examination, severally confessed the particulars before recited; and a considerable quantity of money, to the value of near three thousand pounds, with several goods and merchandises taken out of the said ship, are seized. Seven or eight more are apprehended within Connecticut government, and pursuit is making after the rest."* What became of the ship does not appear from the statement before us. We leave the reader to draw his own conclusions, merely remarking, that if he chose to indulge his imagination on the subject, to one-half the extent that others have indulged theirs on the subject of Kidd, he may readily fancy that this ship, or one of the sloops, made its way into the North river, and there some of these men landed in the Highlands, after scuttling their vessel, and escaped in that way.

ART. V.—COMMERCIAL TREATIES BASED ON RECIPROCITY,

WITH REFERENCE TO THE ADVANTAGES OF A COMMERCIAL TREATY BETWEEN THE UNITED STATES AND THE GERMAN ZOLLVEREIN.

BEFORE entering upon the subject in question, it will be necessary for the sake of placing it in the true light, to present a few introductory remarks on the commercial position and policy of England, and on the tariff of the German Zollverein.

The impediments of commerce thrown in the way of England by the tariffs of the United States, France, and other countries, have been more disastrous to the manufacturing interests of England, than any war in which she has been involved during the last fifty years. It is well known that a great number of political economists, as for instance Adam Smith, Jean Baptiste, Say, and others, recommend to give to a nation who uses, as the English do, almost a prohibitory tariff, full freedom of trade, in order to obtain their goods as cheaply as possible for consumption. But they overlook, in deciding this question, the fact, that England stands like a giant in regard to commerce and manufactures, when compared with other countries, and that she is able, by means of her immense capital, experienced operatives, superior machinery, and by the combination of her manufacturers, to undersell those of other countries, if they are not favored by greater natural advantages; such, for instance, as Saxony enjoys, or by a tariff similar to that of the Zollverein, of which I shall speak hereafter.

It will be seen from a "report of the select committee of the House of Commons on import duties," 1840, page 5, that Saxony is a proof that manufactures can grow without much protection. If such is the case in Saxony, then other countries and states possessing similar natural advantages, which consist in being supplied at home and by the neighboring states with the raw materials of the best quality, and in great abundance,

* This account was transmitted to Secretary Vernon, and may be found in Hutchinson, Vol. II, p. 116.

for the manufactures, with ample and cheap food for the laboring population, can also maintain the manufacturing interests without the intervention of legislation. There is a striking analogy between the wool of Saxony and the cotton of the United States. Both countries save much in the item of freights, thereby enabling them to compete with England notwithstanding her above enumerated advantages. The saving of freights on cotton benefit the United States precisely the same as she would be benefitted in shipping the copper ore of Cuba direct to this country, instead of carrying it to the smelting furnaces of Wales, paying a high freight out and home and a heavy duty in England, amounting to nearly as much as the original cost of the ore.

By referring to the Merchants' Magazine,* you will find this important subject treated in a clear and elaborate manner, showing conclusively the truth of our position.

We will now enter into an explanation of the principles upon which the tariff of the German States, forming the "Commercial League," (called the Zollverein,) is based. In establishing this tariff, it was laid down as a fundamental truth, that the principal of free trade, and the necessity of obliging other countries who practically do not hold to it, to come at some future time to more generous terms, was correct; and for this reason it was designed to set them an example of moderation, by which manufacturing industry would grow up in the natural progress of development. Consequently, this tariff contains no tax that would amount to a prohibition, as in the case with England and France. All raw materials for manufacture, are imported free of duty, and of course all American raw materials. But the English and French tariffs, on the contrary, tax a number of those articles very highly; for instance, wool, cotton-yarn, etc.

The exportation is free of all duty. The tariff is a revenue tariff, and gives only as such, a moderate protection to manufactures of natural growth, which is found sufficient to put them on an equal footing with the foreign manufactured articles in the market, and to secure a sound and firm standing, since a low revenue tariff reconciles all interests, and is therefore not so liable to change. It is the intention, at some future period, gradually to reduce the tariff, in order to keep the manufacturers diligent in the competition with other countries. The basis of this tariff is calculated to be an *ad valorem* duty of 10 per cent on manufactured articles. The report of the select committee of the House of Commons on import duties of 1840, before referred to, justly acknowledges that the tariff of the Zollverein is the lowest in duties, and the least as to the number of articles taxed; their number amounting to about forty-three, but in the English tariff in the year 1840, before the recent reductions, to about eleven hundred and fifty. Articles of luxury are taxed higher; for example, wine, tobacco,—and the latter is taxed incomparably lower than in England.

The Zollverein taxes tobacco from two and a half to three cents per pound, while England taxes it at about seventy-five cents per pound. England consumes, on an average, twenty thousand hogsheads annually, and her treasury derives from it a revenue yearly of about eighteen million dollars. The states of the Zollverein consume annually an average of twenty-eight thousand hogsheads of American tobacco, and derive from it

* See Merchants' Magazine, No. 6, Vol. XII., 1845, page 553.

a yearly revenue of only eight hundred thousand dollars, being only $\frac{1}{3}$ part of that of England; and in the commercial treaty of the German Zollverein offer to considerably reduce this comparatively small duty; and we trust, ere long, that it will be the policy of France to adopt similar liberal views.

This is one of the examples of how much higher, in comparison with Germany, England taxes American articles in her tariff. It is therefore surprising, that the American statesmen do not view with more favor the commerce with the German states.

The tariff of the Zollverein differs from all others, inasmuch as it does not protect everything—it thereby prevents the injuries that result from all other systems. Other countries that aim to protect the agricultural and manufacturing interests, render all kinds of commodities so dear as to materially diminish the exportation to foreign markets, which are supplied by the cheapest producers. In the report quoted above, we see that the German states now supply in part, the markets of South America, Cuba, and the United States, on account of the greater cheapness of the German goods, diminishing the former supplies from England.

It is evident that this tariff is not disadvantageous to the commerce of the United States, since the raw materials of this country are received there free, whereas England and France tax them; and German goods being cheaper, and equal in quality, as the quoted report, pages 5 and 6, acknowledges, to those produced by the two former nations, would make it more profitable.

The use of American materials in Germany, is much greater than appears in the statistics of the imports and exports of the United States, since they come through the free ports of Hamburg and Bremen, which do not belong to the Commercial League, but are in fact her best ports, and in an indirect way through Belgium, which now belongs to the League, and through England, France, and Holland. The American raw materials, particularly cotton and tobacco, to be used in the German factories, amount by the last statistics to more than France consumes in her manufactories.

The colonial policy of England and France, stands in the way of the realization of the reduction in duties, which the American and German states can mutually give to each other, since the latter have no colonial interests to protect. The American and German states would find it to their advantage to assimilate their tariffs, in order to mutually grant those advantages which England, France, and their colonies, enjoy to the exclusion of the rest of the world. By establishing a just and real reciprocity, the United States and Germany would gain great advantages, and the former would acquire more and more customers on the continent of Europe, particularly among the inhabitants of those States, which amount to nearly twenty-six millions, which are incorporated in the German Zollverein, and would moreover become independent of the monopoly system of England and France.

It seems now to be the time that Congress can make advantageous treaties with Germany, England, and France, who all appear desirous to co-operate with the United States in establishing a more liberal and equitable commercial policy. England is situated decidedly better than before the passage of the reform act of 1832, to take an active part in bringing about this consummation much to be wished for, although she cannot do it so easily as Germany; England having gone too far on the way of

high duties. Her colonial policy obliges her, besides, to exclude the United States from favors, which she must, in preference, give to her colonies. The United States and Germany, not possessing colonies, can freely grant mutual advantages. The clause in most of the existing treaties in the United States and other countries, promising them the same advantages as are enjoyed by the most favored nations, is often represented as an impediment to new treaties, but it does not appear to us to be the fact; since, according to true reciprocity, all other states can obtain the same advantages, provided they will grant to the United States similar profitable reductions on their tariff system, as the German states are ready and willing to give. If a treaty of commerce on principles of reciprocity should be made between the United States and the German Zollverein, and England should demand to be placed on a similar footing, she ought to be ready to make the same reductions in her tariff that Germany offers. It would be desirable to establish, by commercial treaties, a firm and permanent basis for their industry, as the continual alteration of the tariff laws with every change of the political parties, is one of the greatest evils that befall the industrial portion of the country. All classes of practical and intelligent men, care little what the rate of duty is, so long as it is stable—and in order to preserve its ability, it must be moderate, otherwise the consumers would be constantly urging an alteration. Some theorists consider treaties of commerce as useless, and vain attempts of two nations for overreaching each other; but the question is not who shall obtain an advantage over the other, but rather how to realize, by reasonable and just means of commercial treaties, an approximation to the principles of free trade, which have been so long and disastrously disturbed. The principles of free trade are admitted to the true, by France and England, in theory, but not put in practice by either. Experience has shown conclusively, that we must seek an approximation to the practical acknowledgment of these principles, by means of treaties, because the ramified commercial interests and movements of the civilized world demand, above all things, a safe basis; nothing proving so destructive as vacillation.

If the United States would manifest a disposition to enter into treaties of commerce with the German states upon the principles of reciprocity, she would thereby probably induce England to change her policy towards the United States by a similar treaty. Every one will remember the apparent uneasiness with which the administration of Sir Robert Peel regarded the endeavors to establish a commercial treaty between the United States and Germany.

The protective policy of England has, in a general way, been much overrated, and the true cause of England's commercial prosperity has been attributable to it, when, in a point of fact, it is chiefly indebted to causes of a very different nature, and to which I shall advert in the concluding part of this article. England owes much for the flourishing state of her manufactures and commerce, to her geographical position—abounding in harbors and mineral productions, fertile soil and temperate climate; always enjoying peace at home, by carrying the war into other countries; by which means all branches of industry could develop themselves, besides having a dense population of intelligent, industrious, and perserving people. She is also greatly indebted to the fact that her farming population enjoyed a favorable position, stimulating to the accu-

mulation of an immense capital, upon which has been based her manufactures and commerce. She has enjoyed, for the last four centuries, what the greater part of Europe has only realized during the present. It is a matter of much gratification, to reflect upon the circumstance that we are blessed with all the advantages of the English agriculturist, in point of soil, climate, persevering industry and intelligence, with an overwhelming superiority in the extent of our lands, and the tenure by which the farmers of our Union hold them, compared with England, or any other country in Europe.

While the European powers, until the year 1816, were almost constantly involved in wars with one another, breaking down their agriculture, manufacture, and commerce, the English were building up those great interests, having a ready market among those belligerent nations for their surplus productions. The prices of all descriptions of goods had risen very high, since the enactment of the "corn laws," the increased taxation, and in consequence of the great expansion of the paper currency; but the farmers were able to pay the landholders a light rent for their lands; because they could sell their produce at a proportionally higher price to the manufacturers, and the latter were able to give higher wages to their workmen, since the manufactured goods could be sold at an advanced price to the whole world. It is well known that the consumers have to pay all the cost of production, taxation, and profits, under which the manufactured goods were produced; hence, the English producers could carry on, in all countries, a monopoly trade on account of the superiority of their goods, and the absence of manufacturing skill and capital in other countries. From the time of the French revolution to the peace of 1815, they increased and enhanced the value of their productions so much, as to receive all expenses, including the capital invested, taxes, and profits, and could burthen with them the foreign consumers. The latter paid, indeed, on those manufactured goods, the high ground rent—high wages and duties, which the producers had advanced. England rendered in this way, the whole world contributory, and threw the restitution of a great portion of her state debts on the shoulders of foreign consumers. This situation of things is changed, and the English duties now fall partly on the English and partly on the foreign consumers, since the competition between them and the foreign manufacturer has become closer. Since 1815, almost general peace has reigned in Europe, and all branches of industry have begun to develop themselves, but they found that England's wealth, skill, and experience, in the meantime, had built up an enormous superstructure that gave her a vast ascendancy over other countries. The extent to which steam power has been applied to all kinds of machinery, almost annihilating time and space, had also given to her great facilities. She could receive and execute orders in a tithe of the time European countries could, and thereby was enabled to supply foreign markets with her manufactures.

Steamboats and railroads alter the commerce of cities and countries, and concentrate business in the seaports and manufacturing districts. They would have given a decided preponderance to England, had not the greater proximity of the raw materials, the cheapness of labor, and the increased skill of the manufacturers of continental Europe counterbalanced it. The English ascribed the latter effects, so far as Germany is concerned, only to the tariff of the Zollverein. But the results of that tariff have

been advantageous to manufactures and commerce, principally by creating freedom of trade through all the German states of the League—the only condition in which it is possible for her internal industry to prosper. They overlook that its basis is only an *ad valorem* duty of 10 per cent, as above mentioned, not a protective tariff; the nearest approximation to principles of free trade existing in any country. They ought to acknowledge that with a nation of such a commercial policy commercial treaties might be easily and advantageously formed, free from liability of change on account of their equity.

A commercial treaty with the German states will be probably found not less profitable to the United States, than that entered into by them with China. We do not mean to assert, that by this treaty being carried into effect, the chances are so great of a few amassing large fortunes as with that of China, but we do maintain that the great masses will derive fully as much benefit. We deem the subject one of great importance, and shall resume it in a future number of the Merchant's Magazine.

ART. VI.—THE FRANKLIN INSTITUTE OF PENNSYLVANIA.

THE Franklin Institute of the state of Pennsylvania, for the promotion of the Mechanic Arts, was incorporated by an act of the legislature, which, on the 30th of March, 1824, became a law. The objects of this association, as expressed in the charter, are, "The Promotion and Encouragement of Manufactures, and the Mechanic and Useful Arts, by the establishment of Popular Lectures on the Sciences connected with them; by the formation of a Cabinet of Models and Minerals, and a Library; by offering Premiums on all subjects deemed worthy of encouragement; by Examining all new Inventions, submitted to them, and by such other means as they may judge expedient." Those objects have been all faithfully accomplished, and the institution is now established on a permanent and solid foundation.

The association now numbers more than two thousand members. It possesses, as its own property, a spacious edifice, in Seventh-street, above Chestnut, one of the most prominent sites in the city of Philadelphia. With a large reading-room, containing the library, which embraces about three thousand five hundred volumes, including the most prominent European mechanical journals, and various other apartments which are devoted to the purposes of the delivery of lectures, the deposit of geological and mineralogical cabinets, the cabinet of models connected with inventions in the useful arts, and the meetings of the association. It enjoys, in those respect, ample accommodations, not only for the members, who actively participate in these transactions, but also for the strangers who are, from time to time, invited to partake of the conveniences which are freely proffered to them by the society.

In the organization of the institution, there are various standing committees, viz: those on science and the arts, the library, the cabinet of minerals and geological specimens, the cabinet of arts and manufactures, on exhibitions, on meetings, and on meteorology. The series of lectures upon the various topics connected with science and the arts, is delivered by some of the most distinguished individuals connected with their various branches; and those lectures commence on the second Monday evening in

November, and are continued on the evening of Monday, Wednesday and Friday, for twenty-one weeks, including the introductory lectures.

Under the auspices of the association, there are, also, annual exhibitions of the various products of American manufactures, in which the most finished specimens of such products, as well as those which are connected with mechanical enterprise, are exposed to public inspection; and to the most approved of such specimens, premiums of various kinds, as well as gold and silver medals, are awarded. By a will, executed in 1816, John Scott, a chemist residing in the city of Edinburgh, bequeathed to the corporation of the city of Philadelphia, the sum of \$4,000 in the funded 3 per cent stock of the United States; at the same time directing the interest that might become receivable thereon, to be laid out in premiums, which were to be distributed among ingenious men and women, who might originate useful inventions, but no such premium to exceed twenty dollars; and that, therewith, there should be given a copper medal with this inscription: "*To the most deserving.*" By an ordinance which passed the select and common councils of that city, Feb. 27th, 1834, the award of the aforesaid premiums and medals was invested in the Franklin Institute of the state of Pennsylvania, for the promotion of the mechanic arts: and by the managers of the institute, the duty of examining inventions and improvements, and of recommending the award of medals and premiums, has been devolved upon the Committee on Science and the Arts. There is, likewise, issued, under the auspices of the institute, a monthly journal, entitled, "*A Journal of the Franklin Institute of the state of Pennsylvania, and American Repository of Mechanical and Physical Science, Civil Engineering, the Arts and Manufactures, and of American and other patented inventions,*" published each month, by the Franklin Institute, at their Hall." This journal was commenced as early as 1826, and edited by a professor of mechanics in the institute; it has been continued down to the present time.

We have thus, briefly, described the organization of the institute, for the purpose of exhibiting its actual character, which is not generally known in the city where it is established, and much less in the other parts of the Union. We had the privilege of attending the Fifteenth Exhibition of American Manufactures by the Franklin Institute, which opened for that purpose on the 21st of October last, at the Hall of the Museum, situated in Ninth, below Chestnut-street, in the city of Philadelphia. There were here arrayed the various products of manufactured and mechanical industry, in a form which could not fail to gratify all those who are interested in the progress of the useful arts, and the trophies and triumphs of domestic industry.

It were impracticable, even did space permit, to specify the various products of domestic skill, which were arrayed upon the walls, and that were accumulated in the body of the hall—articles which came from the workshops of the trades in their unnumbered forms, as well as from the large manufacturing establishments that are propelled altogether by machinery. One of the prominent objects in the lower room, which was mainly devoted to a display of the manufactures of iron and other metals, was a large locomotive railroad engine, from the manufactory of Messrs. Baldwin & Whitney, in the city of Philadelphia. Nor could we particularly describe the display of gorgeous carpets, the highly ornamented and colored lanterns, the cut-glass lamps and chandeliers, the massive and richly chased silver plate, the various species of marble found in the state of Pennsyl-

vania; some of the mantels of this material being elaborately sculptured; nor shall we do more than allude to the highly finished upholstery of various kinds—the hats, woollen and cotton cloths, and other products of the workshop and the loom, which indicate the rapid progress of the useful enterprise of that great manufacturing and mechanical region, of which Philadelphia is a concentrating point, as well as the general advance of the arts throughout the Union.

The benefits of associations, like that of the Franklin Institute, are obvious. By uniting individuals, who are engaged in the same pursuits, in well organized societies, that are constituted upon just principles, and for common objects, which afford individuals an opportunity for the interchange of mutual sentiments and opinions, they tend to create a salutary spirit of good fellowship, promote the common intelligence, and provide the means of acting with effect, both for the amelioration of their own condition, and for the advancement of the common prosperity. The individual members who compose them, while scattered through the community, in their individual capacity, would be comparatively powerless; but when united in this organized form, they are enabled to act with effect. Besides the advantages accruing from such associations to the individual members, by encouraging proper sentiments among themselves, and by enabling them to act for the public good, it is the influence of such associations to benefit, essentially, the condition of manufactures. By providing a place for the exhibition of the most excellent specimens of such manufactures, they tend to make known their existing state, the advances which have been already made, and the names of those who are the most meritorious for their industry and skill. The distribution of gold and silver medals, and other premiums, is also calculated to excite emulation among those who are employed in the same pursuits, and thus to induce exertion in the exercise of that industry and skill which contribute to the progress of the useful arts. Those medals constitute honorable pledges of society favor, and enduring warranties of the quality of the manufactured and mechanical products of those upon whom they are conferred.

Besides, the possession of a library to which all may have access, and the institution of various series of popular lectures upon the numerous subjects connected with science and the arts, freely opened to the members of such associations, and their children, are calculated to enlighten the minds of those persons, not only regarding general subjects, but also relating to the particular occupation in which each may be engaged. It is not merely proper that one should understand the mode of erecting a column, or of dyeing a carpet, in order to become an intelligent operative, but that he should understand the science, as well as the art of the occupation in which he may be engaged, the system of principles upon which it is founded, as well as the system of rules by which it is governed. Thus, alone, are all made intelligent operatives, and capable of performing, understandingly and satisfactorily, the duties which devolve upon them.

Another benefit of such associations, is the promotion of industry. It is made a law of our human condition—the mandate which first issued from the garden of Eden, that occupation—occupation should be the means by which we subsist; and it is also the source of happiness. It is not, indeed, necessary that this occupation should be all of the same kind, for under the system of every well-ordered civilized state, there is necessarily a division of labor; and this labor is to be performed upon the ocean and

the land, in the cabinet and the field, the pulpit and the garrison, the counting house and on ship-board, either with the mouth or the hands; and all labor is honorable. The condition of civilized society, moreover, renders it necessary that industry should be exerted not only upon that which is merely useful, but also upon those objects of literature, science, and art, which contribute to the greatness and glory of a nation. The organization of such institutions is, therefore, calculated to promote industry, by assembling in honorable companionship, and in common enterprises, those who are employed in its active pursuits, and by granting tokens of merit to those who most excel in their useful achievements. By promoting industry, it thus tends to furnish occupation, and effectually to exclude that immorality and vice, which are the result of reckless leisure, and unprincipled idleness.

One of the prominent advantages of institutions of this sort is, to do away, in a great measure, that spirit of party, which is, alike, the source of popular delusion, the offspring of selfish ambition, and political corruption. It can hardly have escaped the observing mind, that party spirit, the desire of accomplishing individual objects, for merely selfish purposes, without reference to the general benefits which they may confer upon the nation, has constituted one of the most degrading features of our own country. It has darkened the public understanding, and subsidised a political press. That there will be honest differences in a free government like our own, concerning the subordinate tendencies of great public measures, it is reasonable to anticipate; but it is difficult to suppose that intelligent statesmen can very widely dissent, concerning these important national questions, which have been made the subject of mature deliberation, exhausting discussion, and ample experience, year after year, both in our own country and in Europe. How small do the questions of placing this or that man, in or out of office, dwindle before those solid principles of solemn legislation, which lie at the foundation of permanent national prosperity, human freedom, and political justice. This party spirit, fomented by small and scheming demagogues for selfish ends, did not exist to the same extent in the times of our political ancestors. It was rebuked by Washington during the latter period of his life. It is rebuked by the spirit and example of the pioneers of our country; by those who led the way to our existence as an independent nation. Let us be admonished from their tombs. We would invoke the spirit of patriotism against the spirit of party in the language of Lord Byron, in his "Age of Bronze," and call up from their tombs the spirits of the past:—

"Henry, the forest-born Demosthenes,
Whose thunder shook the Phillips of the seas,
And stoic Franklin's energetic shade,
Robed in the lightnings which his hand allay'd,
And Washington, the tyrant-tamer, wake
To bid us blush for these old chains, or break."

It is the influence of such associations as the Franklin Institute, to diminish the influence of party spirit, and to direct the attention of organized bodies away from the designs of scheming demagogues to the improvement of their own condition, and the increase of their own intelligence. It is their direct consequence not to tear down, but to build up; and we could wish that they might be established upon just principles throughout the Union.

There can be no doubt that they have already tended, eminently tended, to advance the progress of the useful arts throughout the country. If we cast our eyes back for a single half century, we find the advances in the useful arts to have been most marked and rapid. The period has not long elapsed since those implements of domestic convenience, which have now become most common, were first introduced, and the influence of inventions, extending through the whole circle of agricultural, commercial, manufacturing, and mechanical enterprise, has already greatly increased the comforts of men, and created a revolution in the present condition of the world. The human mind is so constituted, that it is not merely the useful, but the elegant, which is calculated to gratify the taste of man; and hence it is that we find the civilized nations of the old world, strewn with the monuments of ancient and modern grandeur, towering toward the heavens in the pride of their glory, or crumbling in ruins upon the surface of the soil.

Whatever may be the influence of such works of art, which, perhaps, may be considered questionable, our own nation, in those respect, is yet in its infancy. We are now but laying the foundations of future greatness and glory. Ages may elapse before those works of art, which live in the architectural structures, breathe in the sculpture, and glow upon the canvass of the old world, will be accumulated upon our own soil. Yet we are still beginning to decorate the land with their monuments. The present condition of the arts with us, exhibits also a broad contrast to the simple structures of colonial times, and, indeed, of the early period of our independence. Naval, domestic, and ecclesiastical architecture, have, moreover, advanced in proportion to the general progress of the nation. The granite and marble of the soil are springing up into a thousand fabrics, which are erected for domestic purposes, as well as those of legislation, jurisprudence, commerce, learning, charity, and other objects; and the spires of churches are rising toward the heavens in a thousand forms of architectural beauty. It is also true, that from the mutual dependence of all mechanical pursuits upon each other, the general progress of the useful arts is proportioned to the prosperity of those who are the active agents of their advancement.

ART. VII.—MORAL USES OF COMMERCE AND THE SEA.

To the moralist and the merchant, and the latter should not exist without the spirit of the former, the Ocean has a deep and interesting association. Borne on its mighty bosom, and inspired by its presence, a reverend gentleman delivered a discourse on board the packet ship *Victoria*, during her passage to Europe,* on its "moral uses." There is not, perhaps, in the universe, an object so well calculated to awaken human admiration, at the conquest of the material and the physical by the moral and the intellectual, as the ship burthened with her treasures, careering over the deep, with her sturdy mariners. How much of the world's progress has been effected through the influence of navigation and commercial intercourse.

* A discourse on the "Moral Uses of the Sea," delivered on board the packet-ship *Victoria*, Captain Morgan, at sea, July, 1845, by Horace Bushnell, D. D., published by request of the captain and passengers. New York: M. W. Dodd.

The various natural and moral uses of the sea, are briefly but eloquently referred to in the discourse before us, in a series of illustrations as forcibly as they are beautiful. Referring to the fact that the oceans and the seas have contributed to the moral and social advancement of the race, by separating one part of the world even from the knowledge of another, and preserving it from discovery and occupation at an advanced period of history, Mr. Bushnell thus speaks of the discovery of America:—

“ Had the territory of the United States been conjoined to the eastern shore of Asia, or the western of Europe, or had there been no oceans interposed to break the continuous circle of land, it is obvious that the old and worn-out forms of civilization would have wanted a spur to reform and improvement that is now supplied. When, at length, the New World was discovered, then was man called out, as it were, to begin again. The trammels of ancient society and custom, which no mere human power could burst, were burst by the fiat of Providence, and man went forth to try his fortunes once more, carrying with him all the advantages of a previous experience. I set up for the United States no invidious claim of precedence. We acknowledge our rawness and obscurity, in comparison with the splendor and high refinement of more ancient nations. We only claim it as our good fortune that we are a new nation, peopled by men of a new world, who had new principles to be tested, for the common benefit of mankind. As such, the eye of the world is upon us, and has been for many years. The great thought of our institutions—the happiness and elevation of the individual man—is gradually and silently working its way into all the old fabrics of legitimacy in Christendom, and compelling the homage of power in all its high places. Whatever motion there has been in European affairs for the last half century—all the mitigations of law, the dynasties subverted, the constitutions conceded, the enlarged liberty of conscience and the press, popular education—everything that goes to make society beneficent—has been instigated, more or less directly, by the great idea that is embodied and represented in the institutions of the United States. This same great idea, the well-being and character of the individual man, has been brought forth, too, to offer itself to the world, just at the right time. Without it, we may well doubt whether the institutions of Europe had not come to their limit, beyond which they had not, in themselves, any power of advancement. Had it come earlier, Europe was not ready for it. The immense advantage that is thus to accrue to mankind, as regards the great interest of truth, society, and religious virtue, from the fact that our Western Hemisphere was kept hidden for so many ages, beyond an impassable ocean, to be opened, in due time, for the planting and propagation of new ideas, otherwise destined to perish, no mind can estimate. Nor is this process of planting yet exhausted. There are islands in the Southern Ocean larger than England, that are yet to become seats of power and of empire, and possibly to shine as lights of Antarctic history eclipsing those of the north; or, if not eclipsing, giving to all the northern climes, both of the Eastern and Western Worlds, the experiment of new principles, needful to their progress and happiness.”

The uses of the seas is thus happily applied by Dr. B. to the great doctrine of human progress, as illustrated in the extension of commerce, and the diffusion of liberal and enlightened views among the children of a common Father, scattered over the terrestrial globe. Commerce on the ocean, it would seem, was thus fulfilling the inspired declaration of John, in the Revelations, that there “shall be no more sea.”

“ Were there no seas, were the globe covered by a continuous sheet of land, how different the history of the past from what it has been! how different the moral and intellectual state of human society from what it now is! There being no medium of commerce, save that of land travel, no intercourse could exist between nations remote from each other. They would know each other only by a kind of tradition, as now we know the past. Tradition, too, in its long and un-

certain transit across the longitude of the world, would clothe itself in fable, and we, instead of being made to feel the common brotherhood of man as now, should probably be fast in the belief that the opposite hemisphere of the world is peopled by giants, Centaurs, Anthropophagi, and such-like fabulous monsters. There would, of course, be no commerce, except between nations that are adjacent; and society and life without motion or stimulus, would rot itself down into irredeemable bigotry and decrepitude. God would not have it so. On the ocean, which is the broad public highway of the Almighty, nations pass and repass, visit and revisit each other, and those which are remote as freely as these which are near. And it is this fluid element that gives fluidity and progress to the institutions and opinions of the race. It is only in the great inland regions of the world, as in Central Africa and Asia, that bigotry and inveterate custom have their seat. In these vast regions that never saw the sea, regions remote from the visits of commerce and the moving world, men have lived from age to age without progress, or the idea of progress, crushed under their despotisms, held fast in the chains of indomitable superstition, rooted down like their trees, and motionless as their mountains. In the meantime, the shores and islands of the world have felt the pulse of human society, and yielded themselves to progress. It is, in a word, this fluid sea, on whose bosom the free winds of heaven are wafting us to-day, which represents all mobility and progress in the human state. Without this interposed, the rock-based continents themselves were not more fixed than the habits and opinions of mankind. On the other hand, you will observe that the prejudices of men who live upon and by the waters are never invincible. They admit of change, somewhat by habit and association, as their element changes, and they shift their sail to be winds. Hence it was, in part, may we not believe, that our Saviour began his mission on the shores of Genesaret, and among the boatmen there. Out of these, too, he chose his apostles, because they had the ductility requisite to receive new truths and new opinions of duty. Among them he had few prejudices to encounter, while at Jerusalem every mind was set against him with obstinacy as firm as the rocks of Zion. So it was never a Babylon, or a Timbuctoo, or any city of the inland regions, that was forward to change and improvement. But it was a Tyre, queen of the sea; a Carthage, sending out her ships beyond the Pillars of Hercules, to Britain and the Northern Isles; an Athens, an Alexandria—these were the seats of art, and thought, and learning, and liberal improvement of every sort. So, too, it was the Italian commercial cities that broke up the dark ages, and gave the modern nations that impulse which set them forward in their career of art and social refinement, and remotely speaking, of liberty."

Another and more impressive view of the moral utility of seas and oceans, in bringing all regions and climes into correspondence and commercial interchange, is happily alluded to in the discourse. Nations fortified, by oceans and seas, against injury from each other, are yet united for the purposes of mutual benefit by this medium of commerce, the Ocean.

With a few passages on the mission of commerce, and its influence in bringing forward nations in civilization and art, we close the present article:—

"The spirit of commerce, too, is the spirit of peace, its interest the interest of peace, and peace is the element of all moral progress, as war is the element of all barbarism and desolation. Every ship that sails the ocean is a pledge for peace to the extent of its value—every sail a more appropriate symbol of peace than the olive branch itself. Commerce, too, has at length changed the relative position of nations. Once upon a footing of barbarism, they are now placed upon a footing of friendship and civilization. In the most splendid days of Athens, piracy was a trade, not a crime; for it was the opinion that nations are naturally hostile, and will, of course, prey upon each other. But now, at length, commerce has created for itself a great system of international and commercial law, which, to a certain extent, makes one empire of all the nations, maintaining the rights of person and

property, when abroad upon the ocean, or in other lands, as carefully and efficiently, as if there were but one nation or people upon the globe. Search the history of man, from the beginning till now, you will find among all the arts, inventions and institutions of the race, no one so beneficent, none that reveals so broad a stride of progress, as this. And it promises yet to go on, extending its sway, till it has given rules to all the conduct of nations, provided redress for all injuries, and thus lawed out forever all war from the earth.

"The nations engaged in commerce will, of course, be the most forward nations. In perpetual intercourse with each other, they will ever be adopting the inventions, copying the good institutions, and rectifying the opinions, one of another; for the man of commerce is never a bigot. He goes to buy, in other nations, commodities that are wanted in his own. He is, therefore, in the habit of valuing what is valuable in other countries, and so, proportionally, are the people or nation that consumes the commodities of other countries. And so much is there in this, that the government, the literature, nay, even the religion of every civilized nation, must receive a modifying influence from all the nations with whom it maintains an active commerce. In opinions, literature, arts, laws—nay, in everything—they must gradually approximate, till they coalesce, at last, in one and the same catholic standard of value and excellence. Commerce is itself catholic, and it seems to be the sublime purpose of God, in his appointment, to make everything else so, that, as all are of one blood, so, at last, they shall be one conscious brotherhood.

"In the meantime, the nations most favored in art and civilization are approaching, by the most omnipresent commerce they maintain, all the rude and barbarous nations of the world, carrying with them, wherever they go, all those signs of precedence by which these nations may be impressed with a sense of their backwardness, and set forward in a career of improvement. They need only be visited by the ships, or especially the steam-vessels, of European commerce, to see that they are in their childhood, and there must remain, except as they adopt the science and the institutions of European nations. What, consequently, do we behold? Not the wilds of Northern Russia only, not the islands only of the sea, becoming members of European laws, arts and manners—but the throne of Siam inquiring after the methods and truths of the west; all British India studying English, in a sense more real than the study of words; Muscat sending over to examine and copy our arts; both branches of the Mahomedan empire receiving freely, and carefully protecting, Christian travellers, and adopting, as fast as they can, the European modes of war and customs of society; China beginning to doubt whether she is indeed the Celestial Empire, and doomed, ere twenty years are gone by, to be as emulous of what is European as Egypt or Turkey now is. All this by the power of commerce. They feel our shadow cast on their weakness, and their hearts sink within them, as if they had seen a people taller than they. For the same reason, too, the false gods are trembling in their seats the world over, and all the strongholds of spiritual delusion shaking to the fall. The sails of commerce are the wings of truth. Wherever it goes (and where does it not?) the power of science, and all that belongs to cultivated manhood, is felt. The universal air becomes filled with new ideas, and man looks out from the prison of darkness in which he has been lying, chained and blinded, sees a dawn arising on the hills, and feels the morn of truth and liberty."

Art. VIII.—COMMERCIAL LAWYERS.

"The sparks of all the sciences in the world are raked up in the ashes of the law."

It has been justly considered that the range of a lawyer's study should be co-extensive with nature herself. Some of the most eminent advocates have been, in early life, indebted to their knowledge of subjects collateral to their professional studies for their subsequent success at the bar. It has led to their being retained in cases of public importance, which have

brought them into notice, and thereby laid the foundation for their future eminence. Lord Erskine, one of the most brilliant luminaries of the English bar, was for several years in the navy before studying the law. After he was admitted, the circumstance of his having been in the navy, was the cause of his being retained in an important case at a time when, in his own language, he "had not a shilling in his pocket;" upon which occasion he is said to have delivered "an animated and brilliant argument, which at once established his reputation—a reputation without an equal in the annals of forensic eloquence." From that time, business poured in upon him. He was afterwards retained as one of the counsel for Admiral Keppel, at the suggestion of Mr. Dunning, (Lord Asburton,) the case requiring a knowledge of nautical phrases with which Mr. Dunning was not acquainted.

The numerous questions constantly arising in our courts, relating to the disposition of large amounts of property, and involving the life or death of individuals, renders an acquaintance with the various departments of human knowledge of primary importance to the lawyer. It is natural that persons, who have cases which require information upon either anatomy, physiology, chemistry, medical jurisprudence, or commerce, should employ such advocates as are best informed upon the subject appropriate to their respective cases. Hence, those lawyers who have made other subjects besides law their study, are more certain of distinction, and a lucrative practice, than those who are *mere lawyers*. A knowledge of general subjects is not only important in conducting great trials, but is also, often, of vital importance in enabling an advocate to give proper advice in relation to the bringing of actions. In illustration of this point, Dr. Arnott, in his "Elements of Physic," mentions an anecdote worth repeating. "A young, not yet skillful Jehu, having run his phætom against a heavy carriage on the road, foolishly and dishonestly excused his awkwardness in a way which led to his father prosecuting the old coachman for furious driving. The youth and his servant both deposed, that the shock of the carriage was so great as to throw them over their horses' heads: and thus they lost their case by unwittingly proving the faulty velocity was their own." The lawyer who advised the bringing of such an action, was not acquainted with the simple elements of the doctrine of forces.

Men are often induced into long and fruitless litigation, ending in disappointment and expense, and sometimes in the loss of a just claim, in consequence of improper or injudicious advice been given to them before bringing their action.

If in cases arising out of life policies, criminal cases, and the descent of real property, a knowledge of anatomy, physiology and medical jurisprudence is necessary, surely in those which involve the right of commercial property, an acquaintance with commerce cannot be dispensed with. In this country, especially in our large cities, a large part of the legal business is of a commercial character. In order, therefore, to properly and ably manage suits arising out of the large and complicated character of our commerce, our lawyers should be familiar with the history and details of commerce. Many ludicrous mistakes have occurred by reason of the ignorance of judges and lawyers upon general and commercial subjects. It is related of an English barrister, that in examining a witness, he asked, "where a ship (in question,) was at a particular time?" "Oh," replied the witness, "the ship was then in quarantine." "In Quarantine

was he? and pray sir, *where* is Quarantine?" Mr. Chitty, whose writings are well known to the bar, mentions the case of a judge, who after being engaged six hours in the trial of an insurance case, on a policy of insurance upon Russia duck, in his charge to the jury complained that no evidence had been given to show how Russia duck, (mistaking the *cloth* of that name for the *bird*.) could be damaged by sea-water, and to what extent.

We recollect being present at a trial in New York state, in which a number of accounts between the parties were put collaterally in evidence to explain a point arising in the trial. After the case was closed, the judge undertook to submit it to the jury. To do so clearly, it became necessary that the accounts should be commented upon and explained, so that the jury would understand distinctly what they were to pass upon. The judge commenced the task thus imposed, but had not proceeded far before he became confused and embarrassed, from his ignorance of the mode in which merchants kept their accounts, and the commercial terms sometimes used by them, and after vainly struggling to explain the matter, gave it up without clearing away the mist which he had created, and submitted the case in this manner to the jury, to the great injustice of at least one of the litigating parties. The jury not understanding the question from the *luminous* charge of the judge, deemed it most easily disposed of by rendering their verdict for the plaintiff, and accordingly did so. If no right of appeal had existed, manifest injustice would have been done to the defendant; and even with his appellate right he was put to additional delay, trouble and expense.

Every one who attends our law courts will often be surprised at the want of a proper commercial knowledge, frequently manifested by the bench and bar. This would be more obvious, were it not common to refer cases to merchants involving commercial questions. Sometimes this course is undoubtedly necessary, especially where the accounts are long and complicated, to avoid occupying unnecessarily the time of the court; but in a large number of instances it should not be done, as it entails upon the defeated party a heavy additional charge for referee's fees.

In the management of an important commercial trial, it must be apparent to all who have thought of this subject, that the success of even a good cause will depend materially upon the information of the lawyer upon commercial subjects. Upon that will rest his skill in the examination of witnesses, and the final submission of the cause in a clear manner to those who are to decide. In some instances, even a knowledge of the details of commerce are essential. Such being the case, it is a matter of surprise that so few direct their attention to this subject. While a large part of our lawyers are distinguished as special pleaders, and real estate and criminal advocates, but a small part are eminent as commercial lawyers.

So important have some, who have risen to high judicial and legal positions, deemed an acquaintance with mercantile affairs, that, after being called to the bar, they have devoted much time to the study of commerce, and even attended lectures on book-keeping, to acquaint themselves with the various modes of keeping accounts, and we know that they have been much indebted to it for their success at the bar. The position of a sound commercial lawyer is enviable. It secures a lucrative practice and ultimate fame. We regard it, therefore, of the highest importance for an

American lawyer to be acquainted with the history and details of commerce, and, indeed, with all subjects of a mercantile character, as they are all more or less interwoven with the legal business of the country. Numerous facilities are afforded for remedying the difficulty where it exists, and no adequate excuse can be offered for the want of such knowledge. Elementary works exist upon every branch of the subject, which, in connection with the able publications which appear monthly, treating it more in detail, are fully adequate to supply any deficiency. The perusal of these works and publications, at the same time they qualify a lawyer for the better and more able discharge of his duties, would afford relaxation from the severer studies imposed upon him by his profession.

The proverb, that the "lady common-law must lie alone," if it ever was, is now no longer true. The day has gone by when the advocate must be a *mere* lawyer. If he seeks to discharge, faithfully, ably, and discreetly his duties—to become able and distinguished, he must place no limit to his knowledge. "A lawyer professeth true philosophy, and therefore should not be ignorant of beasts, fowls, creeping things, nor of the trees, from the cedar of Lebanon to the hyssop that springeth out of the wall."

ART. IX.—UNITED STATES' BRANCH MINT AT NEW ORLEANS.

THE United States' Branch Mint, at New Orleans, is situated on what was once called Jackson Square, being nearly the former site of Fort St. Charles. It is an edifice of the Ionic order, of brick, plastered to imitate granite, having a centre building projecting, with two wings. It is strongly built, with very thick walls, and well finished. Its interior arrangements are spoken of by Norman,* as "such as not to discredit the distinguished engineer who planned them." The total length of the edifice, is 282 feet, and the depth about 108; the wings being 29 by 81, and the whole three stories in height. It was begun in September, 1835, and the building was perfectly completed at a cost of \$182,000. The square in which it is built, is surrounded by a neat iron railing, on a granite basement. The coinage of 1844, was, of gold, \$31,010; silver, \$1,198,500; making in all \$4,208,500.†

The following account of the process of coinage in the Branch Mint of the United States, at New Orleans, was prepared by Dr. D. L. Riddell, an officer therein. As it is drawn up by an intelligent gentleman, practically acquainted with the details of coinage, we have deemed it worthy of transfer to the pages of the Merchants' Magazine:—

ACCOUNT OF THE PROCESS OF COINAGE IN THE BRANCH MINT AT NEW ORLEANS.

Silver and gold are coined at this mint into dollars, halves, quarters, dimes, half-dimes, eagles, half-eagles, and quarter-eagles. Gold is presented to us in the form of foreign coin, bars, dust, and old jewelry; the most abundant foreign gold coins being English sovereigns, French napoleons, patriot doubloons, and the coinage of different German states; while the unwrought gold is principally from the state of Alabama. Mexican dollars constitute the greatest bulk of the material for silver coinage.

* Norman's New Orleans and Environs.

† For statistics of coinage, at the Branch Mint at New Orleans, etc., for a series of years, see Merchants' Magazine for March, 1844, Vol. X., No. 3, page 248.

Any person bringing good precious metal to this mint, for coinage, is entitled to receive back, in American coins, exactly the same amount of fine gold or fine silver which he brings, without deduction or expense; the United States government taking upon itself the expense of coinage. If the bullion, containing both gold and silver, require the operation of parting, or if toughening be required, then the actual expense of these operations is deducted from the value of the bullion, in favor of the government. Bullion is received by the treasurer, weighed in presence of the owner by the weigher, who gives a receipt for the actual weight in troy ounces and decimals. If it consist of mixed coins or various bars, it is sent into the melting department, placed in a red-hot, clean black-lead pot, melted, stirred up and mixed, and cast into a homogeneous bar. It is next given to the assayer, who cuts off a piece of the bar, rolls out the piece, clips it with shears, and weighs out exactly 1000 milligrammes thereof, which he wraps up in lead, and places upon a white hot dish of bone earth: the whole melts, and oxidizing, every thing present is usually absorbed by the bone earth but the silver or gold. If pure silver alone remain, its weight in milligrammes shows how many thousands fine the bullion is. The result is, however, corrected by what is called the humid assay, which depends on a definite precipitation of chloride of silver from a solution of nitrate of silver, by definite measures of a solution of common salt of known strength. If the assay be one of gold, after the buttota of metal has been removed from the bone earth, it is melted with about three times its own weight of pure silver, the alloy is rolled out and repeatedly subjected to the action of hot nitric acid, which dissolves and removes the silver, but leaves the gold. The latter is carefully washed, dried, annealed at a red heat, and subsequently weighed in milligrammes, by which the proportion of gold in 1000 parts is made apparent. With these data, the assayer then estimates the value of the bullion, whereupon the treasurer, if called upon, promptly pays the amount to the owner.

Parcels of bullion, of known value, are from time to time, delivered and debited to the melter and refiner, who manufactures the same into ingots for the use of the coiner. Upon the receipt of bullion, the melter and refiner assort the bars into the following classes: A ready to be made directly into ingots; B requiring to be toughened; and C requiring separation.

A. A melt is made by arithmetical calculation, from bars of the class A; some above, some below standard in title, so that the result of melting and mixing may produce ingots 900-1000ths fine. In case of silver, about 7,000 troy ounces, equal to 480 lbs. avoirdupois, are melted in a large cast-iron pot or crucible, surrounded by a charcoal fire in a wind or draft furnace; and when the whole is in a state of fusion, the mass is diligently stirred, and then, by hand, laded out and poured into smooth iron moulds, making slim ingots about 16 inches long. Gold is in like manner melted and cast into ingots in black-lead pots, each holding about 1,600 ounces, near 110 lbs. avoirdupois. The assayer next ascertains that the ingots cast are of the legal firmness required; if not, they are condemned, and have to be remelted.

B. Bullion containing anything but gold, silver, and copper, usually requires to be toughened, an operation commonly performed in the mint by repeatedly casting nitre upon the surface of the melted metal, stirring it about, and then skimming it off, with the dross from the base metal contained.

C. The mint processes followed for the separation of alloyed gold and silver, are as follows: in the first place the mixed bullion, if required, is melted with additional silver, so that the alloy may contain about three times as much silver as gold; the melted metal is poured in a small stream from a height of a few feet into cold water, by which means it is obtained in a finely granulated condition; the granulated metal, placed in a glass mattress, supported upon a sand-bath, is boiled with nitric acid, which dissolves the silver, but leaves untouched the gold in the form of a dark powder. The dissolved silver is poured into a tub of strong brine of common salt, by which it becomes converted into a white powder, the chloride of silver. After repeated washing, the chloride of silver is subjected to the joint action of metallic zinc and hydrogen gas, by which means it becomes changed to pure, finely-divided, solid silver. After being washed and dried, it is

melted with nitre and borax, and cast into bars. The dark powder of gold is also carefully washed in hot water, dried, and in like manner cast into bars.

Consequent upon these operations, more or less gold and silver becomes mixed with ashes, dross, dirt, etc. All these matters are finely ground and washed, smelted, etc., for the extraction of the precious metal. But there will still remain a valuable residue, for which reason the sweepings are ultimately treated like poor gold or silver ores, metallurgic operations, the performance of which have heretofore not been allowed in this mint. The sweepings are, in fact, sold abroad.

The gold and silver ingots, cut and trimmed, and their fineness or quality approved by the assayer, are next transferred by weight, through the treasurer's office to the coiner. In the coining department, they are repeatedly passed lengthwise between smooth and powerful iron rollers, being annealed from time to time in a large annealing furnace, until by the compression, the metal assumes the form of long, thin strips, the thickness of which approximates to that of the coin to be manufactured. The annealed strips, covered with a thin coating of wax or tallow, are then taken to a Burton's drawing machine, where, being drawn between polished steel surfaces, on the principle of wire-drawing, the thickness is reduced exactly to the extent required. To attain this nice result, the steel surfaces are adjustable, and trial pieces are punched out and weighed. The drawing machine, as here arranged, is an admirable piece of mechanism. If the strip be drawn a fraction too thin, which seldom happens, it is condemned and returned, through the treasurer's office, with all the residual clippings, to the melter and refiner, who consigns the whole to the melting pot.

The approved strips are next submitted to the action of a circular punch, which at the rapid rate of one or two hundred per minute, cuts out the planchets or blank pieces of the required size for the coin intended. A most curious mechanical process is that next in order, raising milled edges upon the planchets. They are rolled with great velocity edgewise between approximating circular steel surfaces, so that raised edges are produced at a rate, depending upon the size of the pieces, from one to seven hundred per minute. All the form-changing operations are now completed, preparatory to the actual coinage. Annealing and cleaning have next to be attended to. The planchets, with wax or tallow still adherent, are now heated to a dull redness, in iron recipients placed in the annealing furnace, and poured, hot as they are, into a tub of diluted sulphuric acid, by which means all impurities are removed from their surfaces, the alloyed copper superficially dissolved away, and the clear, beautiful, dead white appearance of pure unburnished silver is elicited. Adhering acid is washed away in water, and adhering water dried away by hot mahogany sawdust, in an ingenious rotating apparatus, heated by steam, invented by the present coiner.

COINING.—The coining process consists essentially in compressing the prepared gold or silver blank, with very great force, between engraven dies of steel of extreme hardness and high polish. The dies are prepared for this mint by impression from male dies at the mint in Philadelphia. The letter O, placed usually under the eagle, is intended to designate the coinage at New Orleans. In times of old very simple means were used in the process of stamping money, such as blows by a hammer, or compression by a plain, ordinary iron-screw press, the whole being performed by human labor. Coining in Mexico, South America, and many other parts of the world, is said to be still conducted according to the latter method; but here, as in England, France, and elsewhere, the machinery for rolling, drawing, punching out, milling, and coining, is driven by steam, and the coining presses in use are models of the great excellence to which the mechanic arts have attained. There are four presses in the coining-room, forming a series, in respect to size and strength, adapted to the stamping of the various coins, from the half dime to the dollar. The mechanical principle brought into play is the same as that in the ordinary printing-press—the genicular or elbow power, by which, with sustaining parts of sufficient strength, an almost incalculable degree of pressure may be commanded. Each operating press requires a man to watch it, to oil the joints occasionally, and to keep a vertical brass tube supplied with the blanks or planchets to be coined. The untiring press goes on, seizing with

iron fingers from the tube, a planchet of its own accord, carefully adjusting it to the retracted dies, squeezing it with a degree of force sublime to contemplate, and then quietly and safely depositing it in a box placed to receive it. From eighty to one hundred and fifty pieces, dependent upon the size, are thus coined in one minute's time. The obverse, reverse, and indented work upon the edge, are all completed at a single effort of the press. Travel the world over, and you can scarcely meet with a more admirable piece of massive mechanism than the new press in the New Orleans mint, for the coinage of dollars.

Though stamped and perfectly finished, gold or silver does not legally become money until the coiner has formally delivered it, by counting and weighing, over to the treasurer. It must be seen that the pieces possess the weight required by law. If any prove too light upon trial, a circumstance that rarely happens, such are defaced and condemned to be remelted.

All nations that aim to preserve what is called public faith, are religiously scrupulous to maintain, as far as practicable, the weight and quality of their national coins, in correspondence with the legal standards which they fix upon. Acting with this view, our government has established an annual trial before special commissioners, to test and verify the standard value of the coins of the preceding year. This trial is held at the parent mint, in Philadelphia. Subservient thereto, is the assayer's duty to select assay coins indiscriminately from every parcel delivered by the coiner to the treasurer. The coins selected by him are properly labelled, and formally placed in a tin box, secured by two locks, the key to one of which is kept by the assayer, the key to the other by the treasurer. The contents of this box are transmitted by the superintendent, through the Secretary of the Treasury, to the director of the mint at Philadelphia, for the annual trial. The coinage of this mint has thus far been approved, but it is worthy of remark that the average fineness of the gold coins issued is a trifle better than the mean standard contemplated by law—the average value of a New Orleans eagle being about three-fourths of a cent greater than similar coins from the mints at Charlotte, Dahlonega, or Philadelphia.*

JOURNAL OF MERCANTILE LAW.

LIBEL FOR WAGES.

IN DISTRICT COURT OF THE UNITED STATES, MAINE DISTRICT, NOVEMBER 4TH, 1845.
WILLIAM SMITH, LIBELLANT, VS. HIRAM TREAT.

The arrest and imprisonment of a seaman in a foreign port, and the sending him home by a public authority as a prisoner charged with an indictable offence, does not necessarily constitute a bar to a claim for wages for the voyage. Such proceedings do not preclude the Court from inquiring into the merits of the case, and making such a decree as the justice of the case requires.

The master is not ordinarily justified in dissolving the contract of a seaman, and discharging him for a single fault, unless it is of a high and aggravated character.

The causes for which a seaman may be discharged are ordinarily such as amount to a disqualification, and show him to be an unsafe and unfit man to have on board the vessel.

The libellant shipped as a seaman, April 25, 1845, on board the brig Benjamin, at Frankfort, for a voyage to some port in the West Indies and back, for wages at the rate of \$15 per month. The brig returned August 17th, and the libellant claimed wages for the whole time; the balance due being \$42 50, one month's wages having been advanced at the time of shipping.

D. L. SWEAT, for the libellant: A. HAINES, for the respondent.

The facts are stated in the opinion of the Court,

WARE, District Judge.—The libellant in this case went and returned in the brig, and it is not denied that full wages are due to the termination of the voyage, unless they were lost or forfeited by what took place at Point Petre, the port of discharge. The affair which is relied on as a forfeiture, or more properly as a bar

New Orleans Picayune, November 8th, 1845.

to the claim for wages, took place on the 21st of May, while the crew were discharging the cargo. The captain being at that time on shore, the men, under the orders of the mate, were making up a raft of lumber to be floated on shore, when a difficulty arose between Tappan the mate, and Hadley one of the crew. While the mate was below making up his account of lumber discharged, he heard a noise on deck, and came up to put a stop to it. He found it was made by Hadley, who was on deck, passing off lumber to make up the raft, Smith, the libellant, being at work with him. He ordered Hadley to stop his noise, or go below. Hadley, who had been drinking pretty freely, but not so as to render him incapable of work, replied that he would not go below for him nor for any other man. Tappan rejoined, that if he continued his noise he would put him below, and Hadley again replied, that neither he nor any other man could put him below. Tappan then called to the second mate, who was on the raft, to come on deck and assist in putting Hadley below, whose noise then had attracted the attention of persons near the vessel. Smith, who was at work with Hadley, and to whom nothing had been said, then interposed and said to the mate, "if you put one below, you must put all hands below." The difficulty, however, subsided without any act of violence, and the men returned to their work, and continued quiet for an hour or an hour and a half, when Hadley again became noisy. It is not easy, from the varying accounts of the witnesses, to determine the precise facts which took place after this time, or the exact order in which those occurred, in which the accounts of all the witnesses agree. The noise appears to have commenced between Hadley and Smith, who were at work together; Tappan the mate interposed to stop it, and an affray took place. Tappan knocked down Hadley with his fist; Smith interfered, and gave a blow to Tappan, and they clenched. While they were clenched Hadley got up, and some of the witnesses say that he stood by and looked on, without taking a part. But Harrison the second mate, who at this time came on deck, says that both Smith and Hadley were upon the mate, and had got him upon a barrel; that, as he was going to his relief, Hadley left Tappan and came towards him; that he avoided and passed him, and that he, Hadley, followed him as much as twenty-five feet towards the pump; that he then took a pump-brake, and that Hadley then struck him with his fist, and he then gave him a blow on the head with the pump-brake, which brought him partly down, and then another that brought him to the deck; that he then went to Tappan, whom Smith had down and was beating. He told Smith to let Tappan alone, but he refused and told Harrison not to strike him. Harrison then gave him three blows with the pump-brake before he brought him down, and then turned to Hadley, who had got up and fallen over the deck into the water. He then went on to the raft and got Hadley out of the water, and when he came on deck, Tappan and Smith were again clinched. At this moment the captain came on board and put an end to the affray. The blows given to Hadley proved mortal, and he died the following night. Smith was arrested that night and confined in prison, and sent home in irons by order of the American Consul. He was indicted at the adjourned term of the Circuit Court, on a charge of stirring up the crew to resist the officers of the vessel, and was acquitted of the charge by the jury.

Such are the material facts, as nearly as I can recollect them from the testimony, which, though not in all respects quite contradictory, is not, in all its parts, exactly reconcilable. One month's wages, covering the whole period of his service, previous to his arrest and imprisonment, had been paid in advance, and the libellant now claims wages to the termination of the voyage. For the respondent, it is contended that the misconduct of Smith, followed by his arrest and imprisonment, and his being sent home by the public authority in chains as a criminal, is a conclusive bar to any claim for wages beyond what have been paid.

This court, I hold, is not excluded by any of the proceedings at Point Petre, from inquiring into the merits of the case, and making such a decree as, on the whole, right and justice may require. The libellant was tried and acquitted on the criminal charge, and even if he had been convicted this would not have been a bar to the present suit.* His claim stands entirely unprejudiced by any of the

* *Mason's Reports*, 84: *The Mentor*.

proceedings at Point Petre, and his misconduct, admitting it in all the aggravation that is alleged, cannot operate properly as a forfeiture of the wages now claimed. The wages forfeited under the marine law are properly the wages previously earned, and not those which are or may be earned subsequently. Both justice and policy require this limitation of the forfeiture. If it extended to future earnings for the remainder of the voyage, it would take from the seamen all the ordinary and most influential motives for good conduct. He would never willingly and cheerfully perform his duties, if he knew beforehand that, however diligent and faithful he might be, he could receive no compensation for his services.

But a seaman may, by misconduct, not only forfeit all wages antecedently earned, but his misconduct may be such as will authorise the master to dissolve the contract, and discharge him from the vessel. The principal question presented in this case is, whether the conduct of the seaman was such as would, by the principles of the maritime law, authorise the master to discharge him from the vessel. By the old sea-laws, which are the records of the early customs and usages of the sea, the master is authorised to discharge a seaman for drunkenness, for quarrelling and fighting with the other men, for theft, for going on shore without leave, and for disobedience.* Some of these laws are curiously minute and particular on this as well as on other subjects. The consulate of the sea authorises the master to dismiss a seaman for three causes: for theft, quarrelling and disobedience to the orders of the master, and subjoins, by way of amendment, perjury as a fourth cause, but adds, that he shall not be discharged for the first, but only for the fifth offence. Generally speaking, the causes which justify the master in discharging a seaman before the termination of the voyage, and especially in a foreign port, are such as amount to a disqualification, and show him to be unfit for the service he has engaged for, or unfit to be trusted in the vessel. They are mutinous and rebellious conduct, persevered in, gross dishonesty, or embezzlement, or theft, or habitual drunkenness, or where the seaman is habitually a stirrer up of quarrels, to the destruction of the order of the vessel, and the discipline of the crew.†

Ordinarily the law will not justify a master in dismissing a seaman for a single offence, unless it be of a very high and aggravated character, implying a deep degree of moral turpitude, or a dangerous and ungovernable temper or disposition. It looks on occasional offences and outbreaks of passion, not so frequent as to become habits, with indulgence, and by maritime courts it is administered with lenity, and a due regard to the character and habits of the subjects to whom it applies. They are a race of men proverbially enterprising and brave, exposed by the nature of their employment, to great personal dangers and hardships, contending with the elements in their most violent and tempestuous agitations, and encountering these dangers and hardships with the most persevering courage. But, with all this, they are of a temperament hasty and choleric, quick to take offence, and ready, on the excitement of the moment, to avenge any supposed wrong or indignity. The law looks on the fairer traits of their character with kindness, and as making some compensation for defects and faults which are, perhaps, not unnaturally, or at least, are very frequently associated with those qualities which render them so valuable to their country in peace as well as in war. And when these show themselves but occasionally and are not habitual, it will not visit them with severity, but imposes its penalties with a sparing hand. From considerations of this kind, the court will seldom punish a single offence with a forfeiture of all the wages antecedently earned, much less will it be held as a justification of a discharge of a seaman from the vessel.

But still there are causes which will justify the master in dismissing a seaman and putting an end to the contract. Was this such a case? The conduct of the libellant up to the time when this affray took place had been, if not entirely un-

* *Jugemens D'Orleon*, Art. 6-13. *Consulat de la Mer*, Ch. 125. *Laws of Wisbyu*, 18 Edit. of Cleirac. *Laws of the Hanse Towns*, 29-45.

† 1 *Peter's Adm. Rep.* 175, 168. 2 *Peter's Rep.* 262. *Bee's Rep.* 148, 184. 4 *Marson's Rep.* 42. *The Lady Campbell*. *Ib.* 222; *The Vibia*.

exceptionable, such as had not exposed him to any special censure. But on this occasion, though in the judgment of the jury, the part which he took did not amount to the offence charged in the indictment, it was highly censurable and approximating to mutiny. Hadley, under the excitement of liquor, had been turbulent and noisy, so much so as to attract the attention of persons in the vicinity of the vessel. Both the mates, the master being on shore, had before by gentle means, attempted, and for the time succeeded in quieting him. Tappan told him if he continued his noise he would put him below. This was certainly no harsh punishment, but a very proper act of discipline unless quiet and order were restored. The answer of Hadley was insolent, but no notice was taken of that, nor was there any attempt by the mate to put the threat into execution. It is apparent he was satisfied with putting a stop to the noise. But Smith immediately interposed, and, in a tone of defiance, told the mate if he put one man below he must put all below. Such language and conduct, under the circumstances of the case, if not amounting to that technical offence of stirring up the crew to resist the orders of the officers, was clearly of a mutinous tendency, and subversive of the discipline of the ship's company. Hadley became quiet, and the difficulty subsided. But he soon again resumed his noise, and the disorder at this time arose from difficulty between him and Smith. The mate again interposed to stop the noise. It is not easy, from the imperfect and somewhat conflicting accounts given by the witnesses, to determine how the quarrel now commenced. What is certain is, that Smith interposed on the part of Hadley; a scuffle ensued and blows were given on both sides; Smith and Hadley being both against the mate, they got him down and held him down until he was partially relieved by the second mate's coming to his aid. Even after Hadley was disabled by the blow which unfortunately put an end to his life, Smith fiercely continued his assault on Tappan, the mate, nor did he relinquish his grasp, though Harrison repeatedly struck him with a heavy pump-brake, but persevered until the master came on board and put an end to the fight. It is in proof that Tappan was severely beaten and bruised by Smith, or by Smith and Hadley together. Through the whole affair, until it came to blows, the conduct of the officers was moderate and forbearing. There was nothing particularly irritating, and certainly nothing that excused the intemperate violence and mutinous conduct of Smith. From the beginning to the end he was a volunteer in the quarrel, and it is difficult to account for the part he acted but by supposing it to flow from a radically quarrelsome disposition. It was commenced without cause, and continued with a persevering malignity not often witnessed; and, in fact, the melancholy tragedy in which the affair ended, may be distinctly traced to the insubordination and violence of Smith as its first cause.

Whether, but for the tragic end of this affair, the master would have thought it necessary, or would have been justified in discharging the libellant and putting an end to the contract, is a question perhaps on which one might pause. Smith had on no other occasion exhibited a temper of dangerous insubordination, and it might have been safe for the master to have retained him on board, and to have left this matter to be settled at the termination of the voyage. As it was, certainly it was the duty of the master to call on the civil authority of the place, and put the affair in a train of judicial examination. The result of that inquiry was, that Smith was sent home as a prisoner to answer for his conduct to the laws of his country. And from the facts developed on the trial here, it appears to me that the civil authorities were perfectly justified in this course. The consequence was that the libellant was disabled from performing the service for which he was engaged, and from the whole facts in proof in the case, he may justly be considered as having disabled himself by his own voluntary act. On the principles of natural justice and universal law, he cannot claim a compensation for services which he has by his own fault disabled himself from performing. The libel must therefore be dismissed.

[As a part of the history of this transaction, it may be added that Harrison, the second mate, was indicted (in the Circuit Court) for an assault with a dangerous weapon, which resulted in the death of Hadley. Under the statutes of the United States manslaughter would not lie, since the death occurred on shore,

whither Hadley was removed after the fatal blow, and without the jurisdiction of the United States. On a verdict of guilty, the Circuit Court, in consideration of the circumstances of the case, sentenced Harrison to a brief imprisonment—the penalty for the offence laid, being in fact, under the statute, the same as that for manslaughter.

BANKRUPTCY—COPARTNERSHIP, ETC.

Opinion of the Hon. P. V. Daniel, delivered May 19th, 1845, in the U. S. Circuit Court for the Southern District of Mississippi, on the petition and appeal of S. W. Oakley; in the matter of F. Stanton, a bankrupt.

Statement.—There were three firms, each composed of the same three partners—Buckner, Stanton & Co., of New Orleans, of which Henry S. Buckner was the resident partner; Stanton, Buckner & Co., at Natchez, of which Frederick Stanton was the resident partner, and M. B. Hamer & Co., at Manchester, of which M. B. Hamer was the resident partner. In the course of many years of operation, the Mississippi firms fell in arrear to the New Orleans house, large balances respectively, which were struck on the books of the latter firm prior to the bankruptcy of Buckner, or of F. Stanton, or the death of Hamer. Buckner's bankruptcy was conducted in Louisiana—the balances due the New Orleans house were reported as assets of that firm, and were sold by the assignee there, for the satisfaction of the creditors of that firm, and Oakley purchased. The claims thus originating were presented as entitled to *pro rata* distribution, out of the products of the Mississippi firms, raised on Stanton's bankruptcy here. The main question was whether the claims were provable.

On consideration of the claim presented by this petition, I can perceive no valid objection to it arising either from generality, indefiniteness or uncertainty in its character; or from defectiveness in the proofs on which it is rested. The claim is founded upon accounts current between the bankrupt and his creditor, and upon a comparison between those accounts current and the correspondence and books of the bankrupt, by the agent of the latter, who kept those books.

Accounts current have always been regarded as evidence between merchants, and as admitted proofs of the amounts they purport, upon their face, if not objected to within the usual lapse of mercantile correspondence. They are deemed in law a proper foundation on which to sustain the action of *indebitatus assumpsit*, and it has been settled that claims upon which *indebitatus assumpsit* will lie, are provable in bankruptcy. It seems to me, therefore, that the claim in question for anything connected with its form, was provable under the bankruptcy, and I might add, if necessary, that it appears to me to have been sufficiently established by proof.

Let us now inquire whether there be anything relative to the nature of this claim, as being in reality a separate and individual or a social demand; or any consequence deducible from the identity of the individuals constituting these several firms which should lead to its rejection. Without instituting a comparison between the rule approved by Lord Harkwicke, and that adopted by Lord Thurlow and the latter decisions, we will take the modern rule in its most ample and unqualified extent; viz: that social creditors must be satisfied to the entire exhaustion of the social effects, and that the individual partner who may have advanced to the firm his separate and private means to any amount, cannot prove against the firm in opposition to the social creditors. This is putting the principle as broadly as any person can desire. Still it may be asked whether, even within this wide scope, the case before us be comprised? Is this the case of an individual partner attempting to prove his separate claim against the social effects, and in opposition to the social creditors? It is true, according to the proof adduced, there existed three firms, which were all composed of the same individuals. But although this natural identity as to the component members of these firms existed, still each was a distinct and separate mercantile body; and, as to its separate, corporate transactions, which it had an unquestionable power to conduct, and as to its separate and peculiar creditors, each was as distinct and entire as if no other whatever existed. The social creditors of each of those separate bodies

had the right to claim whatever was due to it as a firm—had a right to claim first, and if necessary, to the full extent of its rights and effects. They had a right to claim whatever was due to this firm, as a firm, from any other person or persons, natural or artificial. It matters not whether such artificial body or firm was or was not composed of the same persons, or of others; the debts to the firm, as such and all its property and credits, as a firm, belonged to its creditors, under the bankruptcy. This seems to be the natural and inevitable conclusion laid down by Lord Thurlow; and, to say that the individual identity of the persons composing the separate firms should have any effect, would amount to a total overthrow of that principle, and would be allowing the individual and not the social character of the party to give the rule. In the case before us, the New Orleans house is declared bankrupt; before the commissioner, its social claim against the Mississippi house is exhibited and proved; by order of the court, sitting in bankruptcy, it is ordered to be sold for the benefit of the social creditors of the New Orleans house, and the proceeds of the sale applied for the benefit of those creditors. Can there exist any reason why the transferee of this claim should not be permitted to prove it, in the same manner and to the same effect, which the creditor of the New Orleans firm or the assignee of that firm might have done? To my mind, no such reason is apparent.

It is in legal effect, a claim by the assignee of the bankrupt firm of New Orleans, in behalf of the creditors of that firm against the bankrupt firm of Mississippi, and should be allowed against the latter, *pro rata*, with other claims against them.

The converse of this proceeding would be an appropriation to the creditors of the Mississippi firm of that which did not belong to it, or to its creditors; but which belonged rightly to the creditors of the New Orleans firm; for, with respect to those several firms, their respective creditors who dealt with them, and them alone, must attach upon those firms, respectively, and be regarded *a priori*, as if they were solitary and unconnected with any other houses.

ACTION OF ASSUMPSIT—LETTERS OF CREDIT—BILLS OF EXCHANGE.

In the Supreme Judicial Court of Massachusetts, before Judge Hubbard. *John C. Green and others v. Nathaniel Goddard*.

This was an action of assumpsit, brought by the plaintiffs, who were merchants at Canton in China, trading under the firm of Russell & Co., against defendant, who was a merchant of Boston. The most important facts were briefly these, although a large amount of details and documentary evidences was put into the case. In March, 1836, Goddard purchased of Mr. Hooper, the agent in Boston, of Timothy Wiggin & Co. bankers in London, two letters of credit, to be used in Canton, one authorising Russell & Co. to draw the bills on Wiggin & Co. to the extent of £4000 sterling for the account of Goddard; and the other authorising Russell & Co. to draw in the same manner for £2000; which bills the agent agreed should be duly honored by Wiggin & Co., if drawn within 12 months from the date of the letters. Goddard at the same time made an agreement with Wiggin & Co., that he would provide funds in London to meet the payment of all his bills drawn under those letters of credit.

The letters of credit were transmitted by Goddard to Russell & Co. at Canton, with instructions to purchase for him certain goods with the bills that should be drawn in pursuance of them; for which transactions Russell & Co. were to receive a commission. Russell & Co. drew bills accordingly, negotiated them, purchased goods with the proceeds, and forwarded the goods to Goddard. The bills were duly presented to Wiggin & Co. and accepted by them, but, before they came due, Wiggin & Co. suspended payment. Baring Brothers & Co., who were correspondents of Russell & Co. protected the bills for the honor of the drawers, and paid them as they became due. They wrote to Russell & Co. informing them what they had done. They also wrote to John M. Forbes, one of the firm of Russell & Co., who was then in Boston, to the same effect. Baring Brothers & Co. held goods belonging to Russell & Co., and on which Russell & Co. were entitled to receive advances. Baring Brothers & Co. wrote to Forbes

that they should withhold those advances, to secure them from taking up the bills drawn by Russel & Co. Mr. Forbes gave notice to Mr. Goddard before the bills fell due, and the latter said that he would provide means to pay them as they matured. But he neglected to do so. In the mean time, Forbes procured funds, and remitted the same to London, at a premium of 21 per cent; and by that means, and by certain transfers of property on the books of Baring Brothers & Co., provided for the bills which first became due. He gave notice of these transactions to Mr. Goddard, and requested a reimbursement. Goddard replied, that he was making arrangements in London to take up all the bills, with commissions, interest, and expenses of protest, but said nothing in relation to the claim for advanced premium. He afterwards made arrangements with Wiggin & Co., in consequence of which Wiggin & Co. paid the whole amount of the bills, with the interest and expenses, and the usual banker's commission; and the bills were given up to Wiggin & Co. by Baring Brothers & Co., without any claim made by the latter for the damages sustained by Russell & Co.

Russell & Co. in the present suit, claimed to Goddard to be indemnified for the advanced premium which they had been obliged to pay, in consequence of Goddard's neglect to provide for the bills as they became due, and for the loss which they sustained by the detention of the advances which they were to have received from Baring Brothers & Co., on the goods in the hands of the latter. The case was by consent withdrawn from the jury and submitted to the Court, who were to draw such inferences of the fact as a jury would be authorized to do. If the law would warrant a recovery by the plaintiffs, and the evidence should be sufficient as to damages, the case was to be referred to an assessor, to ascertain the amount, on such principles as the Court should direct, and judgment was to be entered for the plaintiffs accordingly; but if otherwise, verdict and judgment were to be entered for the defendant.

Hubbard J. delivered the opinion of the Court. As the defendant's name does not appear on the bills of exchange drawn by the plaintiffs upon T. Wiggin & Co., he cannot be liable for any damages arising to the plaintiffs in consequence of the non-payment of the bills by the acceptors, unless upon some agreement existing between him and the plaintiffs. The first point, is then to ascertain the relation which existed between the plaintiffs and defendant in regard to these transactions; whether the plaintiffs were merchants, acting on their own account, or whether they were agents of the defendant, and transacting business on his account. The acts of Russell & Co., in drawing and negotiating the bills, and purchasing the goods, were done in pursuance of the instructions of Goddard, contained in his letter to them which enclosed the letters of credit, and they thereby became his agents in these transactions. Nor did their agency cease with the purchase of the goods. The bills could not have been drawn by Goddard, under the letter of credit, and could only be drawn by Russell & Co. They, by drawing them, became responsible to those who might hold the bills, in case the drawees should fail to accept them, or to pay them at maturity. They were not obliged to look alone to Wiggin & Co. to indemnify them against such responsibility, but had also a right to look to Goddard their principal. Where an agent incurs a personal liability by his fidelity to his principal, and such liability becomes necessary in consequence of the instructions of the principal, who is well acquainted beforehand that such liability must be incurred by the agent, the agent is entitled to be indemnified by the principal for any loss which he may suffer thereon. The surrender of the bills by Baring Brothers & Co. did not amount to a waiver of the plaintiffs' claim for damages, because their claim was not founded upon the bills themselves, and upon their production at the trial as evidence of their claim; but upon their relation as agents of Goddard in these transactions. Nor is the right of the plaintiffs to an indemnity limited to the amount of damages which they would have been bound to pay, if the bills had been returned to Canton dishonored. They had a right to take the necessary precautions to save their credit from suffering a damage from the disorder of their bills.

The next question is, what damage have the plaintiffs sustained? It appeared

that at the time of the stoppage of Wiggin & Co., the plaintiffs had a large quantity of bills outstanding which required protection, besides the bills drawn by them for the defendant; and that under an agreement with Baring Brothers & Co., Forbes made remittances, at the same time and afterwards, at the high rate of premium then existing between the United States and England, without any special appropriation to particular bills. The Court were of opinion, that the amount of losses arising from the high rate of exchange, up to the time when the last payment was made by Baring Brothers & Co. on account of the Goddard bills, should be apportioned upon all the bills paid for Russell & Co. up to that time; and that the amount should be ascertained by the assessor. Upon the amount thus ascertained, the plaintiffs will be entitled to interests.

In regard to the claim for losses alleged by the plaintiffs to have been suffered by them in consequence of the withholding advances, by Baring Brothers & Co. on the goods consigned, they having retained them as security for their reimbursement, the Court were of opinion that they could not be sustained. They cannot claim a compensation for the loss of incidental benefits which they might have derived from the use of their money. They might have realised great benefits from the use of it, and on the other hand, they might have incurred ruinous losses.

The cause will be sent to an assessor, in accordance with the agreement of the parties, to ascertain the amount of the claim for the premiums of exchange, on the moneys which the plaintiffs were compelled to advance for the defendant, in consequence of his neglect to provide for the bills as they came to maturity.

COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE AND REVIEW.

STATE OF THE COMMERCIAL WORLD—EFFECTS OF SHORT CROPS IN EUROPE ON THE MARKETS AND CONSUMPTION—EVILS OF UNSTABLE LEGISLATION—THE PROPOSED REDUCTION OF THE TARIFF—THE SUB-TREASURY AND THE CURRENCY—LEADING FEATURES OF 192 BANKS OF THE UNITED STATES—ARRIVAL OF FLOUR AT TIDE-WATER, AND VALUE IN NEW YORK, FROM APRIL TO NOVEMBER—FLOUR AND WHEAT ARRIVED AT TIDE-WATER, PER ERIE CANAL, FROM 1839 TO 1843—CIRCULATION OF FREE AND CHARTERED BANKS OF NEW YORK STATE—IMPORT OF GOODS INTO UNITED STATES UNDER THE OPERATION OF DIFFERENT TARIFFS—EXPORTS FOR LAST SIX YEARS—EFFECTS OF TARIFF AND CURRENCY ON TRADE—EXTENT OF THE SPECIE BASIS.

THE state of the commercial world presents an aggravation of all those features on which we touched at the date of our last number as growing out of the bad quality and quantity of the crops of Great Britain. A great deal of the panic which prevailed on this subject was, doubtless, the effect of political agitation; but, nevertheless, the wants of England will be large, and the sales on the part of the United States very considerable; yet, as we indicated in our last number, the prices of flour in New York have not been maintained at the highest points they reached under the excitement of the news. We somewhat elaborately in our last number entered into the causes which, in our judgment, would modify the effect of the deficient harvest in diminishing the consumption of cotton. The views we then held are somewhat justified by a fall in breadstuffs. The whole of the commercial world, up to the harvest just ended in England, was in a high state of prosperity, and a daily improvement in the consumption of goods, the employments of the people, and the wages of industry, were accompanied by a more active employment for capital, and high profits to the owners. A deficiency in the English harvest is the sole interruption to that favorable state of affairs, and that deficiency is greatly exaggerated for political objects. That the crops of potatoes in Ireland are short, is true. It is also true that some 4,000,000 of souls will encounter great distress, but they are not of a class who have heretofore consumed many goods, and therefore a diminished consumption through their present distress cannot take place. The remedies most likely to be applied by the government, are

to admit coarse grains free of duty into Ireland, and as this measure of itself would afford but little relief to those not possessed with means wherewith to buy, it must be accompanied by large disbursements in employment of the people. This will probably be done in the construction of public works in the most distressed sections, which are precisely those which are in most need of the works, because the distress is the consequence of the want of suitable communications with the markets. Out of present evils, will therefore arise much future good. It does not appear that the government will venture on the expedient of throwing open the ports of England free to the import of grain. The head of the government is no doubt anxious to modify the corn laws so far as by increasing the import to enhance the revenues derivable from grain; but the oligarchy, headed by a superannuated military man, are not yet prepared for such a concession to the people. Apart from this circumstance of the crops, the whole state of affairs is eminently prosperous. Money has indeed been advanced to $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent per annum by the bank, but exchanges being in all quarters in favor of England, the money circulates in England, and is actively employed. But the disposition to loan may have been greatly checked by the panic in relation to the corn laws, and will be corrected as that panic subsides. The consumption of goods and raw produce is very large, and the masses are well employed at comparatively good wages. All these are indications of continued health, which point to a progressive large demand for American produce. It is to be observed that as the foreign markets for English goods continue healthy, and money is still cheap in the manufacturing districts, there is but little apprehension of those large exports of goods to the United States, for the purpose of realizing money, which formerly marked a period of distress. It is further to be observed that the great railway speculations, which had produced such alarm, have greatly subsided, and appear to be more imaginary than real. The state of commercial affairs, as far as the condition of the foreign markets is concerned, is eminently healthy; and, therefore, there is every prospect of an extensive and remunerative market for the products of this country. We are, however, about to experience the evils of unstable legislation. The reaction of the tariff of 1842 is now to be experienced, and the message of the President, as well as of the report of the Secretary, advise the reduction of the present tariff to a maximum rate of 20 per cent, with discriminations for revenue purposes only below that rate. It is also recommended to preserve the cash duties, and to establish a uniform system of warehousing. The importance of this latter regulation to the commerce of this country, we have fully discussed in a former number. Under the cash system, without warehousing privilege, the large carrying trade that formerly existed between the United States and the countries of South America, has nearly perished, and with it a large export of domestic goods to make up assorted cargoes has been lost. The establishment of a uniform and extensive system of warehouses, would eminently tend to provide at all times a plentiful supply of foreign goods, on which the duty would be payable only when needed for consumption. The importer of small capital would thus be freed from the burden of the payment of large cash duties, and the outlay of a cash capital thus advanced to the government. A large assortment of foreign goods, at all times on hand, to make up assorted cargoes, without the ceremony and loss attending drawbacks, will be of vast service in extending our foreign trade, and the export of domestic produce and manufactured goods. In the meantime, the probable reduction of the tariff has a depressing effect upon the import trade, more especially in that the proposed abolition of the minimums and specific duties will make an immense change in the ad valorem rate of many chief articles of import, and consequently the disposition to import more than is required for immediate wants is diminished.

The reduction of the tariff, as far as its influence upon the amount of imports is

affected, will be counteracted to a very considerable extent, through the influence of the proposed re-establishment of the sub-treasury plan of finance for the federal government. It is probable that the re-enactment of that law now, will, for a long series of years, settle the vexed question of finances, and ensure, by its constant and universal action, at least a currency very near a specie level. The sub-treasury law of the United States was passed and approved July 4, 1840. The presidential election took place and changed the character of the government, involving a repeal of the law August 13, 1841. It was consequently in operation one year and one month, and repealed without any substitute having been provided. The funds of the government have since been kept in various banks, subject to the order of the Secretary of the Treasury, who could change no depository without rendering a sufficient reason. The security given by the banks has been mostly United States stock, or that of the States. This, under any circumstances, could be but a temporary arrangement. The money of the government thus reposing in bank vaults, without interest, has been the basis of extended loans, and has agitated the market to a considerable extent. The funds of the government being constantly liable to be removed, could, with safety to the banks, be employed only on stock loans subject to call. This was attended with all the inconveniences of growing speculation, and inflated prices whenever the revenues were large, and of panic and sudden fall whenever the wants of the government required the withdrawal of loans so made. The stock market being usually looked to as a kind of barometer of the financial atmosphere, served, under such artificial fluctuations, only to disturb the public quiet and produce unfounded alarm, to the great injury of general business. The proposed operation of the sub-treasury plan of finance with the specie clause, is now productive of some disquiet among those who have been in the habit of ascribing all the revulsions of past years, growing out of the explosions of overwrought credits, to the operation of specie "circulars" and clauses. There is doubtless some ground for uneasiness—not, however, arising from what exists, but from what may be the case by the time that the specie clause of the sub-treasury (if that law should be re-enacted) would come into operation. We may first recount the leading features of the law as passed July, 1840. It provides that new fire-proof vaults be constructed in the new treasury building at Washington; these are to constitute the Treasury of the United States—the mint at New Orleans, and the mint at Philadelphia, to be places of deposit. Also, there shall be vaults for depositing money under the charge of receivers-general in the Custom-houses of New York and Boston, and similar places to be erected at Charleston, S. C., and St. Louis, Mo.; also under the direction of receivers-general, who shall be nominated by the President, with the advice and consent of the Senate, and hold office four years. These officers are to keep the money safely, without loaning or using, until they receive orders from the department to pay out or transfer; and all collectors and receivers shall pay over to the receiver, in their several districts, all the money in their possession once a week. The salaries of the receivers be as follows:—

Salary of receiver-general at New York.....	\$4,000
“ “ Boston.....	2,500
“ “ Charleston.....	2,500
“ “ St. Louis.....	2,500
“ treasurer of mint, Philadelphia, additional.....	500
“ “ New Orleans.....	1,000
Total salaries of sub-treasury officers.....	\$13,000

The Secretary of the Treasury may transfer the money from one depository to another, or to the United States Treasury, at his discretion. The money in the hands of any depository shall, at all times, be subject to his draft, whether for transfer or disbursement. The public dues were to be collected as follows:—

After 30th June, 1840, $\frac{1}{2}$ in specie, $\frac{1}{2}$ in notes of specie-paying banks.

" " 1841, $\frac{1}{2}$ " $\frac{1}{2}$ " " "

" " 1842, $\frac{1}{2}$ " $\frac{1}{2}$ " " "

" " 1843, the whole to be paid in specie.

The 23d section provides as follows:—

"That it shall be the duty of the Secretary of the Treasury to issue and publish regulations to enforce the speedy presentation of all the government drafts for payment at the place where payable, and to prescribe the time, according to the different distances of the depositories from the seat of government, within which all drafts upon them, respectively, shall be presented for payment; and in default of such presentation, to direct any other mode and place of payment which he may deem proper. But in all those regulations and directions, it shall be the duty of the Secretary of the Treasury to guard, as far as may be, against those drafts being used, or thrown into circulation as a paper currency or medium of exchange."

These were the main features, and the bill was repealed before its provisions in relation to specie came fully into operation, or that the sub-treasury vaults had been prepared for its service. It will be observed that the operation of the specie clause was made gradual in order to accustom the banks and the public to its effects. This part of the law, however, never went into operation, because the money was actually left in bank vaults, and the law was repealed before the perfection of the machinery. It is now apprehended that the operation of that clause may produce a dearth of money, and involve a great fall in prices and values. The apprehension admits an inflation of prices now based upon the volume of the paper currency, a state of things which we do not think exists, inasmuch as that the banks' issues have been very limited until the past year, during which they have, it is true, greatly swollen, but have not yet influenced a speculative rise in prices dependant upon the continuance of that inflation. We will take the following table of the returns of 192 banks, to November, 1845, as compared with November, 1844:—

LEADING FEATURES OF 192 BANKS OF THE UNITED STATES.

	1844.		1845.	
	Loans.	Specie.	Loans.	Specie.
New York	\$73,091,795	\$8,968,092	\$74,789,435	\$8,884,545
Philadelphia	14,603,334	3,540,645	16,965,593	3,704,546
Virginia	12,628,508	2,126,497	13,957,411	2,016,544
Georgia	2,455,106	807,939	758,743	785,659
South Carolina	5,831,508	1,032,728	6,364,479	871,514
New Orleans	2,665,514	8,316,880	4,822,222	6,162,080
Maine	492,763	198,999	6,014,200	205,588
	\$115,763,529	\$24,991,760	\$124,663,093	\$22,629,976
	Circulation.	Deposits.	Circulation.	Deposits.
New York	\$20,152,219	\$30,391,622	\$21,625,239	\$31,773,991
Philadelphia	3,762,163	7,549,687	4,204,414	10,300,196
Virginia	5,555,924	2,800,008	5,590,645	3,004,600
Georgia	1,509,901	554,243	1,528,088	577,672
South Carolina	1,936,879	1,459,095	2,264,582	1,767,117
New Orleans	1,892,997	6,088,777	2,556,895	6,223,910
Maine	1,846,815	1,254,910	2,226,380	1,304,400
	\$36,651,089	\$50,098,347	\$39,986,242	\$54,951,836

The aggregate amounts compare as follows:—

	1844.	1845.	Increase.	Decrease.
Loans	\$115,763,529	\$124,663,093	\$8,899,564	
Specie	24,991,760	22,629,976		\$2,361,784
Circulation	26,651,989	39,986,243	3,335,153	
Deposits	50,098,347	54,951,836	4,853,539	

The expansion here is considerable and general, but it is observable that the specie on hand, to the gross circulation, is but as 1 to 1 $\frac{1}{2}$, and it is scarcely more than 1 to 1 $\frac{1}{2}$.

net—that is, deducting notes on hand; consequently, if all the notes were called in, and the specie paid out, the change in the volume of the circulation, as effected by these banks, would be now small. The expansion is, however, in very rapid progression. In Ohio, particularly, 21 new banks are in operation under the law passed at the last session, and several more are in progress of organization. The issues of these banks will have a powerful effect upon the state of business and the level of prices. It is very evident, therefore, that when that inflation has taken place, that the operation of the specie clause will produce a revulsion. The increase of the circulation of the New York banks has been caused rather by the rise of produce, consequent upon the foreign demand, than that it has caused that advance; but it has, no doubt, materially assisted the high price of flour, and has prevented exportation, involving a subsequent fall in price. The progress of the circulation has been as follows:—

NEW YORK STATE CIRCULATION.

	August.	November.	August.	November.
Free Country.....	\$3,006,496	\$3,842,121	\$3,688,259	\$4,174,542
Chartered ".....	9,148,491	10,078,826	8,682,301	11,031,683
Total Country.....	\$12,154,988	\$13,920,947	\$12,320,560	\$15,206,225
Free City.....	\$1,287,550	\$1,386,002	\$1,573,130	\$1,584,671
Chartered City.....	4,648,786	4,845,270	4,570,719	4,834,343
Total City.....	\$5,936,336	\$6,231,272	\$6,143,849	\$6,419,014
Total State.....	\$18,091,324	\$20,152,219	\$18,464,409	\$21,625,239

The greatest increase has been in the country chartered banks—that is to say, from August to November, the aggregate increase was \$3,160,830; of this the country chartered banks were \$2,349,382, leaving but \$800,000 for all the other banks. This increase has been almost altogether on the part of the banks in the flour districts. This movement in the flour market was the result of the accounts which reached here of the great scarcity in England. The following table of the monthly receipts of flour and wheat to tide water, expressed in bbls. of flour, with the price in New York city, on the first Wednesday in each month, and the value of the receipts for each month, at that price, will indicate the powerful influence which the foreign news exerted:—

ARRIVAL OF FLOUR AND WHEAT AT TIDE-WATER, AND VALUE IN NEW YORK, MONTHLY, EXPRESSED IN BARRELS OF FLOUR.

	Barrels.	Price.	Value.	Barrels.	Price.	Value.
April.....	66,097	\$4 62½	\$305,698	199,976	\$4 62½	\$924,889
May.....	368,561	4 62½	1,704,595	402,079	4 50	1,809,315
June.....	297,278	4 31½	1,281,268	234,879	3 62½	1,086,315
July.....	306,980	4 31½	1,223,023	204,301	4 31½	881,048
August.....	256,880	4 18½	1,075,665	195,041	5 81½	936,147
September.....	361,012	4 37½	1,654,028	327,141	4 81½	1,572,648
October.....	427,396	4 81½	1,789,721	541,686	6 25	3,385,637
November.....	443,662	4 68½	2,080,784	882,475	7 00	5,764,325
Total.....	2,527,866	\$4 44	\$11,214,862	2,928,569	\$5 58	\$16,363,122

The lowest point of flour was in July. The low prices which had (then ruled) operated to prevent flour coming freely forward; this short supply reacted upon prices, causing them to rise. When the advance was accelerated by the foreign news, flour and wheat came forward in an abundance never before equalled. This was held at \$7 a \$7 25—too high to export, and, as the receipts accumulated without a corresponding vent, the rates again fell. The monthly receipts of flour, at tide-water, for several years, with the aggregate receipts of wheat, were as follows:—

BARRELS OF FLOUR AND WHEAT ARRIVED AT TIDE-WATER, PER ERIE CANAL.

	1839.	1840.	1841.	1842.	1843.	1844.	1845.
April....	21,616	30,933	16,094	61,606	162,207
May....	120,886	240,884	249,487	221,155	185,086	241,216	306,474
June....	177,457	239,818	224,072	175,908	253,512	279,271	229,784
July....	65,165	117,213	151,066	122,737	234,205	226,081	186,336
August...	24,672	154,931	136,523	102,735	254,010	221,789	184,451
Septemb'r	83,549	239,719	254,573	259,483	315,070	284,636
October..	203,868	325,095	268,808	411,025	364,807	445,191
November	255,716	420,144	321,048	252,258	412,400	699,452
December	14,788	36,400	19,279
Total flour	967,712	1,805,187	1,624,855	1,561,395	926,813	2,222,240	2,488,531
" in wheat.....	781,055	928,347	327,346	1,262,249	1,604,113

" in flour 1,781,066 1,747,064 2,239,177 2,474,689 2,809,349

These figures, in some degree, illustrate the capacity of the great avenues to pour forth produce, whenever prices are such as to remunerate the farmer and miller. The events now passing abroad are such as to give a wide field for this demand, and urge, to its full extent, the capacity of the west to send forth its surplus products. The effect of the proposed change in the tariff, comes eminently in aid of this large export of produce, by checking the disposition to import goods, and, therefore, to bring specie into the country in exchange for the produce sent out; while the agitation of the sub-treasury, by preventing the extension of bank loans to the holding of produce, may operate to keep the prices at a regular healthy export level, and by so doing, allows all the surplus to pass out of the country at its actual effective value, and, as a necessary consequence, to enhance the value of the returns into the country. These returns will take the shape of specie rather than of goods, inasmuch as the check given to the currency, by the change in the financial policy of the government, will check the inflation now progressing, and reduce prices of imported goods; while the demand for specie, for government purposes, will enhance the comparative value of specie. If we turn to the imports for the last six years, embracing the operation of three tariffs, we find results as follows:—

IMPORTED GOODS INTO THE UNITED STATES.

	Specie.	Free goods.	Adval. duties.	Specific.	Total.
1840....	\$8,882,813	\$48,313,491	\$26,998,981	\$22,946,334	\$107,041,519
1841....	4,988,633	61,031,098	34,610,642	27,315,804	127,946,177
1842....	4,087,016	26,540,470	49,209,085	20,325,516	100,162,087
1843....	22,320,335	13,257,249	16,684,875	12,494,340	64,753,799
1844....	5,880,429	18,396,452	52,315,291	31,352,863	108,435,035
1845....	4,070,242	18,077,598	60,191,862	34,914,862	117,254,564

Total. \$50,179,468 \$185,616,358 \$240,010,736 \$149,349,739 \$625,593,181

The table presents a great diminution in the import of free goods under the tariff of 1841, which imposed duties on most articles, with the exception of tea and coffee. The import of ad valorem goods has greatly increased, more particularly since 1843, when the present tariff went into operation. The imports under that date, it will be observed, are for nine months only. The exports for a corresponding period have been as follows:—

EXPORTS FOREIGN GOODS.				DOMESTIC GOODS.			
Specie.	Free goods.	Ad valorem.	Specific.	Specie.	Goods.	Total.	
Dolls.	Dolls.	Dolls.	Dolls.	Dolls.	Dolls.	Dolls.	
1840	6,171,041	6,212,562	3,271,728	2,534,081	2,235,977	111,660,561	132,085,946
1841	7,287,846	3,953,054	2,136,522	2,091,659	2,746,486	103,636,232	121,856,755
1842	3,642,785	3,195,299	2,842,762	2,041,692	1,170,754	91,799,242	104,691,534
1843	1,412,919	1,683,206	1,889,257	1,567,315	107,429	77,686,354	84,346,482
1844	5,270,809	2,251,550	1,706,206	2,256,302	183,405	99,531,774	111,200,046
1845	7,762,049	2,413,050	2,107,292	3,064,439	884,446	98,455,330	114,646,606

81,548,349 19,708,721 13,953,767 13,555,488 7,287,993 582,769,493 668,827,375

The year 1839 was one of speculative imports; that is to say, the proceeds of large amounts of stocks sold abroad came home in the shape of specie. Since then, the number has fluctuated with the vicissitudes growing out of financial changes in this country. The results for six years, in relation to foreign goods, have been as follows:—

	Specie.	Free goods.	Ad valorem.	Specie.	Total.
Import .	\$50,179,468	\$185,616,868	\$240,050,736	\$149,849,719	\$625,593,181
Export .	31,548,349	19,708,721	13,953,767	13,555,488	78,866,325
Consump.	\$18,831,119	\$165,907,637	\$226,096,969	\$135,794,231	\$546,726,856
This has been paid for with United States coin.....				\$7,287,993	
" " " produce and goods.....				582,799,493	
					\$590,087,487

In this we have an apparent loss of 43,360,630

That is to say, what we have given exceeds, by that amount, what we have received; yet this is very far from being the fact, because the specie balance has been in our favor by more than \$11,000,000; showing that a profit on the whole exports has been realized. This has been the case under a high tariff, the effects of which have been, at times, counteracted by the expansion of the currency here. If the proposed measures of the government are carried through, the reverse will be the case, viz., the duties will be lower, but the currency will be dearer, and will maintain the prices of goods at a specie level, and perhaps, lower than the average abroad; consequently this operation of the financial policy of the government, would as effectually check imports as well as high duties, and will have the effect of promoting exports, for the same reason, viz., that prices will be generally low. The state of the currency has a far greater effect upon the foreign trade than is generally supposed. A tariff which, in one state of the currency, is entirely prohibitive, is, in a more expanded state of credit, but little check upon imports, because, with a fuller state of the currency, prices here rise to a degree which covers the amount of duties; but such a general use, it is evident, discourages exports to an extent quite as great as it encourages imports, and produces a revulsion by the advanced state of exchanges. The state of affairs, so presented, is eminently such as to point to a great accumulation of money in the country. The specie basis is now much larger than ever before, and the outstanding credits, based upon that specie, greatly less than at some former periods. The tendency of affairs is to enhance that specie basis, while keeping a check upon the extension of credits, or of extended bank discounts, which are the most effective means of creating a demand for money; because, for any specified amount received from the banks, the maturity of the obligation requires a sum larger, at least, by the interest to be paid to them; and when the discounts are general, the prosperity must be general, and results active, to admit of their notes, in the aggregate, being met without pressure.

We have not here alluded to those political events that have lain heavy upon the markets during the month. The chief of these was the termination of the Oregon negotiation, without results. It was apprehended, from the high tone taken by both governments, that difficulties might arise from indisposition, or perhaps inability, of either party, to recede from the position it had taken; and stock-jobbers and political partisans endeavored to give the most effect to the apprehensions. Happily, however, the fears passed away, as the public became more confident that England would offer to take the forty-ninth parallel as the boundary, and that it would be accepted by the Senate. It is not to be disguised, however, but that the money-market was influenced, both here and in England, through the indisposition to loan money that these apprehensions produced. In England, moreover, the situation of the railroad deposits has excited great alarm. The deposits required by law amount to some £20,000,000, and should have been paid into the government by the 30th November. They were mostly made in local depositories, and the transfer to the government must be made by February 30; and the manifest impossibility of paying so large a sum in money, excites alarm. The result will be, probably, that all the projects will be quashed by the government, on the ground that the proceedings have not been legal. These two circumstances are they which most affected the general state of affairs, and they are passing away, leaving the corn question a mere ministerial struggle.

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

SHIPPING OF THE PORT OF BOSTON.

We published in the Merchants' Magazine, for November, 1845, a tabular statement of the registered and enrolled and licensed vessels of all denominations, owned in the city of New York, carefully prepared from the books of the Custom-House, expressly for this Magazine, by Mr. J. Dodge, Jr., a clerk in the naval office. We have now the pleasure of laying before our readers, through the politeness of the Hon. MARCUS MORTON, the worthy and efficient Collector of Customs for the port of Boston, a similar list of the shipping of that port. It was prepared with great labor and care by Mr. S. Andrews, Marine Clerk and Registrar in the Boston Custom-House; to whom we would, also, return our grateful acknowledgments for his promptness, as well as the clear and legible form of the statement furnished by that gentleman for publication in our Journal.

This list of vessels is made up to the 1st of December, 1845, and includes all that are owned at the port of Boston, now under permanent registers or enrollments. Those vessels which belong to other districts, and now under temporary registers granted at that office, are not included.

We have no means of ascertaining the amount of tonnage owned in Boston, and now employed at other districts under temporary registers, but should think it at least equal to the temporary register tonnage at this port.

	Tons. 95ths.
Amount of permanent register tonnage, Sept. 30, 1845.....	149,706.53
" enrolled " " "	39,568.22
	<hr/>
	189,274.75
Amount of temporary register tonnage, Sept. 30, 1845.	42,146.90
Total	<hr/> 231,421.70 <hr/>

From a statement in the Treasurer's report, exhibiting a condensed view of the tonnage of the several districts of the United States, on the 30th of June, 1844, the registered tonnage of the district of Boston is put down at 175,330.52; enrolled and licensed at 35,564.47—making a total of 210,895 04. The registered tonnage of the district of New York, according to the same statement, on the 30th of June, 1844, is put down at 253,888.23; and the enrolled and licensed at 271,273.75—making a total of 525,162.03.

		SHIPS.			
Names.	Tons.	Names.	Tons.	Names.	Tons.
Ariosto,	361.46	Beividera,	396.48	Chilo,	418.44
Asia,	474.69	Berlin,	613.02	Carthage,	426.00
Arno,	298.65	Brewster,	696.15	California,	369.02
Alhambra,	694.39	Bertrand,	397.40	Cygnets,	498.54
Admittance,	426.76	Colchis,	421.59	Chicora,	467.19
Argo,	449.78	Cato,	464.91	Corsica,	428.61
Alabama,	697.67	Clarissa Andrews,	396.74	Charlotte,	541.38
Aldebaran,	380.16	Clarendon,	536.56	Congaree,	321.12
Areatus,	548.32	Chili,	569.34	Corsair,	301.05
Ashburton,	449.23	Concordia,	602.34	Carolus,	581.63
Aurelius,	388.60	Charlotte,	390.54	Colombo,	577.44
Archelaus,	596.80	Cairo,	536.61	Concord,	321.29
Augustine Heard,	491.05	Coquimbo,	671.54	Columbiana,	630.75
Albatross,	745.62	Cumberland,	382.52	Canton,	298.78
Ariel,	234.59	Charles Carroll,	386.35	Charles,	486.21
American,	390.56	Constantine,	742.14	Deucalion,	513.18
Antwerp,	413.56	Cherokee,	411.64	Damascus,	694.00
Bowditch,	578.27	Camera	385.90	Dalmatia,	358.52

Sails—Continued.

Names.	Tons.	Names.	Tons.	Names.	Tons.
Diana,	568.30	Lapland,	545.10	Russell Glover,	795.30
Dumbarton,	499.21	Lucas,	349.81	Robert G. Shaw,	402.11
Duxbury,	308.62	Leonore,	370.28	Regulus,	387.91
Eliza Warwick,	530.28	Medford,	544.90	Sophia,	632.08
Ellen Brooks,	464.76	Margaret Forbes,	383.44	St. Petersburg,	814.38
Eli Whitney,	532.50	Mary Ellen,	529.44	Shaw,	343.09
Edward Everett,	622.73	Marathon,	382.18	Suffolk,	518.27
Essex,	698.80	Monsoon,	380.64	Sterling,	539.69
Edmund Perkins,	617.02	Moselle,	898.23	Surat,	346.06
Exchange,	424.33	Middlesex,	496.51	Sweden,	646.07
Elizabeth Bruce,	586.53	Merlin,	313.13	Saxon,	344.50
Eben. Preble,	493.65	Mary Broughton,	322.90	Sartelle,	416.23
Emily Taylor,	387.91	Mary Francis,	326.46	Santiago,	420.27
Epaminondas,	548.79	Mary Ann,	496.91	Soldan,	648.03
Fama,	362.84	Milton,	597.64	Sunbeam,	843.61
Franconia,	499.10	Montreal,	542.72	Sophia Walker,	335.41
Francis Whitney,	464.39	Martha,	533.88	Trenton,	428.83
Farwell,	698.56	Medora,	314.00	Tiber,	303.43
Francis Ann,	446.13	Mount Vernon,	446.11	Talma,	296.00
Gentoo,	435.48	Massachusetts, st. sh.	750.73	Tagliona,	798.42
George Hallett,	420.24	Malabar,	648.08	Timoleon,	422.00
Grotius,	299.25	Norfolk,	548.29	Tarquin,	515.55
Granada,	593.40	Neptune,	498.34	Tiger,	312.25
Gov. Davis,	768.38	Norman,	508.22	Tioga,	419.00
Gloucester,	338.55	Nestor,	396.51	Thos. H. Perkins,	669.81
Henry Tuke,	365.71	North Bend,	365.12	Thos. B. Wales,	599.59
Hampden,	646.33	Niobe,	347.22	Tonquin,	496.17
Hamilton,	398.43	Nile,	334.27	Tennessee,	457.44
Hamlet,	494.03	Naples,	309.00	Thos. W. Sears,	499.91
Heber,	434.79	New Jersey,	636.21	Vandalia,	434.12
Inez,	356.22	Nonantum,	693.75	Vespasian,	317.91
James Perkins,	385.38	Oceanus,	473.37	Versailles,	547.50
Jacob Perkins,	379.08	Oxmard,	595.77	Vancouver,	518.07
John Q. Adams,	661.44	Parthenon,	536.17	Windsor Castle,	671.16
Josiah Bates,	620.26	Pharsalia,	617.34	Woodside,	633.70
Kentucky,	491.31	Plato,	397.43	Wm. Gray,	295.91
Konohassett,	426.60	Plymouth,	425.23	Walpole,	592.64
Louisa,	323.70	Paul Jones,	624.14	Waldron,	544.65
Logan,	332.25	Rajah,	531.25	Warren,	415.86
Laura,	685.22	Robin Hood,	395.37	Wm. Goddard,	536.17
Loo Choo,	639.96	Rockall,	644.06	Washington Irving,	751.01
Leland,	347.03	Rubico,	487.62	Yumchi,	419.75
Levi H. Gale,	421.64				

BARKS.

Names.	Tons.	Names.	Tons.	Names.	Tons.
Abbot Lord,	437.06	Cambridge,	215.39	Dunlap,	197.00
Autoleon,	345.32	Cuba,	233.35	Delphas,	397.70
Albert Henry,	197.52	Cambrian,	196.74	Diana,	299.04
America,	313.03	Commerce,	289.24	Douglas,	466.76
Adeline & Eliza,	249.58	Carib,	205.08	Daniel Webster,	264.06
Arab,	353.65	Craton,	334.16	Effort,	271.34
Altorf,	258.88	Chusan,	240.01	Emma Isadora,	213.38
Alabama,	280.22	Caroline,	191.79	Elvira,	198.56
Ardennes,	231.77	Coquette,	457.26	Ellen,	372.93
Anita,	194.71	California,	187.41	Edith, steam bark,	407.15
Azof,	295.35	Catherine,	226.18	Elizabeth Hull,	320.74
Amos Patten,	294.67	Catalpa,	260.47	Elk,	198.13
Brighton,	387.44	Chief,	195.16	Frederick Warren,	363.37
Bevis,	214.11	Convoy,	249.40	Fanny,	529.13
Brewster,	215.47	Como,	224.67	Francis,	240.00
Bashaw,	392.18	Dutchess,	268.76	Franklin,	258.13

BARKS—Continued.

Names.	Tons.	Names.	Tons.	Names.	Tons.
Flora,	293.44	Moscow,	277.88	Swan,	272.02
Griffon,	301.29	Maryland,	194.89	Sultan,	353.89
Ganges,	225.56	Morgan Dix,	280.51	Sharon,	285.83
Gulnare,	273.04	Nautilus,	215.82	Sappho,	319.47
Hull,	295.56	Niagara,	232.17	Stag,	274.00
Hersilia,	309.53	Neptune,	231.41	Southerner,	276.63
Howland,	275.37	Nile,	180.78	Sylphide,	348.92
Harriet T. Bartlett,	197.22	Nahant,	303.91	Saranac,	244.68
Imogene,	179.46	New England,	238.59	Soluda,	239.33
Ida,	195.52	New World,	229.14	Tiberias,	239.27
Jacob S. Waln,	264.49	Natchez,	299.75	Tasso,	286.22
Junco,	295.07	New England,	357.34	Turbo,	294.42
John Parker,	392.55	Olga,	332.76	Talisman,	346.51
Janet,	168.46	Osmanli,	287.09	Tartar,	321.57
Justice Story,	199.82	Ohio,	373.44	Thetis,	398.72
James W. Page,	199.24	Olof Wyk,	313.28	Turk,	197.02
Kazan,	205.81	Palestine,	248.80	Undine,	253.55
Kilby,	477.68	Pico,	215.66	Verona,	238.52
Kensington,	356.92	Prompt,	197.59	Vernon,	306.77
Lintin,	318.62	Pilot,	199.75	Valhalla,	275.00
Lenox,	370.00	Peytona,	269.52	Velasco,	271.15
Lucy Penniman,	270.13	Peru,	271.29	Wolga,	285.57
Lawrence,	198.24	Palmetto,	282.02	Wave,	197.18
Manto,	281.45	Rouble,	252.03	Wallace,	300.39
Maid of Orleans,	253.74	Rio,	198.36	Warwick,	337.20
Maine,	174.32	Roman,	245.45	Wm. H. Shaller,	243.28
Montgomery,	399.09	Rochelle,	285.71	Wyman,	193.45
Mohawk,	198.44	Saxony,	346.18	Yarmouth,	326.56
Mary,	268.40	Susan Jane,	224.94	Z. D.,	311.26
Mindoro,	285.06	St. Andrews,	288.28	Zamora,	276.17
Manchester,	290.82	Stamboul,	279.39	Zulette,	198.52
Miquelon,	182.21	Saphronia,	197.84	Zenobia,	279.66
Massasoit,	206.38				

BIRDS.

Names.	Tons.	Names.	Tons.	Names.	Tons.
Albert,	132.22	Cameo,	221.53	Eagle,	99.88
Acadian,	157.46	Cecelia,	152.04	Eolus,	116.84
Antelope,	372.63	Cynosure,	230.63	Eliza Burgess,	176.03
Ann,	147.14	Commaquid,	196.05	Emerald,	191.08
Alderman,	99.45	Caroline & Mary,	179.90	Esther,	135.18
Anne & Julia,	130.84	Caroline,	145.00	Ella,	164.80
Attila,	206.21	Cyclops,	227.20	Erie,	181.27
Almatra,	98.50	Cervantes,	249.62	Emma,	198.52
Archelaus,	111.91	Cordelia,	186.20	Eagle,	142.00
Aurora,	162.82	Carleton,	249.33	Eliot,	140.88
Aldeboran,	156.58	Casilda,	161.74	Fame,	257.24
Aerial,	147.26	Coheco,	196.82	Forest,	171.30
Acorn,	198.06	Calcutta,	198.56	Garnet,	194.15
Albert,	209.16	Canary,	137.06	George Ryan,	212.73
Almena,	175.07	Chatham,	171.75	Globe,	239.36
Ann Caroline,	190.04	Colorado,	199.17	Geo. W. Gifford,	181.78
Antares,	199.45	Choctaw,	193.09	Hector,	198.04
Antares,	147.43	Colombo,	156.38	Havana,	163.84
Belisarius,	175.63	Commodore Hull,	118.29	Harbinger,	189.93
Baltimore,	169.23	Creed,	175.44	Hallowell,	203.09
Baltimore,	167.45	Curacao,	131.06	Home,	137.38
Benj. Franklin,	163.74	Democrat,	242.91	Isabella,	149.56
Boston,	170.73	Draco,	160.22	Josephine,	232.51
Betsey,	177.21	Doctor Hitchcock,	142.87	Junius,	225.14
Cronstadt,	273.26	Dover,	166.69	John H. Stephens,	185.85
Calo,	144.78	Ellsworth,	246.66	Joseph Balch,	153.00

BRIGS—Continued.

Names.	Tons.	Names.	Tons.	Names.	Tons.
Lincoln,	174.35	Ocean,	165.00	Shawmut,	205.86
La Grange,	139.01	Pandora,	210.24	Speedwell,	104.20
Lysander,	242.35	Pilgrim,	180.56	Sarah Abigail,	210.85
Lucy,	164.19	Patapsco,	170.08	Sarah Jane,	103.85
Lewis Bruce,	113.26	Pauline,	149.69	Susan,	142.86
Mohawk,	176.77	Plymouth,	178.48	Sulla,	145.38
Margaretta,	235.20	Patriot,	164.45	Swan,	137.73
Maria Spear,	199.43	Ponce,	177.58	Tecumseh,	190.47
Montilla,	123.44	Porpoise,	160.00	Tuskar,	247.76
Mary Stanton,	157.60	Palm,	188.68	Token,	138.07
Martha,	169.04	Pearl,	194.60	Tangier,	175.41
Metamora,	190.15	Palm,	127.56	Talleyrand,	187.15
Martha,	169.04	Quincy,	216.00	Uncas,	227.09
Michigan,	130.77	Rodney,	116.27	Uncle Sam,	135.25
Mozart,	128.77	Rienzi,	101.62	Vernon,	286.36
Napoleon,	192.49	Russian,	222.35	Virgin,	111.56
New Castle,	226.84	Robert Waln,	178.33	William,	197.60
New England,	155.67	Rodolph,	123.05	Wallace,	147.67
North Bend,	175.88	Senator,	193.56	Wabash,	298.62
Ottoman,	205.30	Spartan,	179.77	Wm. Neilson,	175.53
Osceola,	158.41	Sea Eagle,	199.62	Willingsaley,	210.22
Odeon,	118.20	Silenus,	162.67	Wm. M. Rogers,	161.32
Ontario,	199.30	Souther,	197.74	Wm. Penn,	158.89
Omar,	123.87	Sarah Williams,	217.34	Wm. Pitt,	174.62
Oak,	208.83	Snow,	197.51	Yucatan,	177.50
Oak,	177.68				

SCHOONERS.

Names.	Tons.	Names.	Tons.	Names.	Tons.
Atlantic,	97.22	Brenda, yacht,	33.15	Eugene,	107.07
Alpine,	121.20	Brilliant,	73.44	Emily,	24.57
Aurora,	110.38	Cape Fear,	103.12	Envoy,	74.79
Amity,	56.14	Cygnat,	91.51	Emerald,	73.18
Alfred,	66.21	Charlotte,	57.38	Emeline,	37.42
Ann,	51.14	Charles,	49.67	Ensign,	65.91
Arabella,	20.43	Compliance,	144.20	Eliza Ann,	33.00
Atlantic,	94.94	Clarissa Howard,	68.73	Envoy,	111.46
Agenoria,	61.65	Convoy,	74.79	Excel,	139.34
Auti,	85.41	Cornelia,	96.94	Eagle,	51.95
Albany Packet,	90.41	Columbia,	48.05	Echo,	69.73
Albert M. Hale,	134.73	Clarissa,	117.16	Eliza Matilda,	89.28
Arcot,	145.69	Cassius,	99.43	Erie,	113.15
Adventurer,	69.85	Crowner,	53.44	Exchange,	56.55
Anaconda,	85.20	Cygnat, yacht,	31.08	Excelsior,	84.62
Andrew Brown,	127.51	Crocodile,	39.65	Elizabeth,	117.31
Alice & Nancy,	61.29	Challenge,	165.79	Emerald,	79.25
Amelia,	69.27	Cicero,	41.67	European,	82.44
Alexander,	103.24	Charleston Packet,	69.80	E. Randall,	143.11
Ancona,	82.06	Convoy,	45.56	Fair Play,	20.80
Breeze, yacht,	40.03	Council,	99.14	Franklin,	36.15
Beaver,	62.04	Dover,	87.67	Federal George,	34.70
Bazaar,	22.14	Dolphin,	28.02	Fair Play,	101.51
Berry,	97.44	Dusky Sally,	86.68	Fancy,	136.85
Boston,	147.65	Director,	62.32	Friendship,	53.01
Banner,	87.86	David Cox,	148.48	Friend,	149.07
Brainard,	74.26	Detroit,	99.88	Frolic,	88.01
Bethiah,	34.76	Denmark,	99.12	Fame,	96.14
Byron,	47.35	Daniel Webster,	113.17	Frederick Warren,	121.63
Benj. Reed,	41.70	Doris,	83.13	Forest,	54.24
Bulance,	74.87	Dart,	103.74	Florence,	84.25
Benj. Bigelow,	153.57	Eunice,	40.78	Fulcrum,	81.29
Brutus,	60.60	Enterprise,	191.50	Frances,	73.39

SCHOONERS—Continued.

Names.	Tons.	Names.	Tons.	Names.	Tons.
Franklin,	60.38	Luther,	54.39	Richmond,	198.74
George & William,	140.26	Lygonia,	147.78	Rebecca,	62.77
Gazelle,	114.68	Laurel,	88.71	Renown,	129.84
George Pollok,	96.57	Lowell,	130.15	Roxana,	37.66
George Washington,	39.28	Lavinia,	64.66	Rose,	122.09
Gov. Eustis, boat,	9.91	Lady Temperance,	58.02	Reaper,	94.20
Gov. Strong,	28.81	Laurel,	99.28	Rome,	20.45
George,	89.11	Mac,	80.59	Rambler,	103.63
Gladiator,	98.62	Mary,	65.00	Rambler,	122.19
Gleaner Packet,	64.49	Midas,	186.13	Rienzi,	86.70
Gen. Miller,	51.00	Marion,	87.61	Robin Hood,	110.82
Glide,	110.42	Mary Jane,	22.82	Red Robin,	58.71
Grandeec,	157.91	Mary,	60.08	Rapid,	123.22
Genoa,	153.45	Mary Adeline,	26.35	Rodney,	56.62
Gleaner,	22.08	Mary,	58.09	Sterling,	148.19
Good Hope,	80.66	Martha Wood,	114.61	St. Thomas,	74.91
Gournet,	68.27	Marion,	61.90	St. Paul,	94.38
George & William,	140.26	Mary,	61.53	Superior,	131.48
Gipsev,	20.48	Mary Ann,	110.63	Shylock,	119.94
Gen. Foster,	103.61	Meridian,	70.49	Splendid,	151.78
Huron,	106.51	Mary Elizabeth,	104.76	Sarah,	63.77
Henry,	98.22	Mary,	56.69	Susan,	92.26
Hancock,	50.73	Mogul,	119.30	Sam. A. Appleton,	177.19
Homer,	175.40	Mary Jane,	22.82	Salem,	72.16
Hornet,	52.16	North. Light, yacht,	69.90	Susan Baker,	99.47
Henry A. Breed,	180.63	Newcomb,	47.23	Sylph,	66.40
Harriet,	64.18	New York,	96.66	Sarah Ripley,	68.49
Helen Frazar,	90.37	Nimrod,	98.87	Star,	23.08
Henry,	120.86	North Battery,	68.45	Susan,	134.00
Hudson,	75.15	North Carolina,	129.43	Statesman,	72.07
Hunter,	70.00	Nettle,	65.06	Sun,	183.65
Henry Clay,	70.05	Nancy Treat,	90.00	St. Helena,	104.87
Home,	70.22	Nassau,	107.91	Southerner,	99.10
Hero,	80.89	Niagara,	99.45	Sarah,	52.04
Harriet,	116.04	Ontario,	92.67	Spitfire,	97.10
Howard,	184.83	Orleans,	125.16	Stranger,	98.25
Industry,	55.40	Owen,	50.42	Sidney,	79.12
Irene,	116.08	Ornament,	74.31	Tremont,	143.65
Independence,	40.02	Ocean,	99.79	Troubadour,	60.27
Independence,	49.81	Oriole,	106.00	Tellus,	98.14
Independence,	72.58	Odd Fellow, yacht,	29.80	Two Brothers,	95.76
Iowa,	83.00	October,	114.47	Two Brothers,	29.35
Isaac Franklin,	139.67	Pilot,	141.74	Two Brothers,	34.01
Josephine,	123.15	Post-Boy,	49.30	Tangent,	71.91
Jerome,	107.92	Polly,	49.07	Two Friends,	47.07
Jasper,	135.23	Post-Boy,	65.24	Trader,	61.04
Julia,	43.51	Pearl,	60.27	Thos. H. Thompson,	96.46
Jane,	124.87	Packet,	30.75	Talent,	86.81
Jubilee,	62.39	Pearl,	73.24	Thompsonian,	55.36
Jane,	112.00	Phantom,	76.30	Trio,	141.35
Julia,	116.12	Pilgrim,	120.78	Undine,	132.78
John Cooley & Co.,	183.18	Pearl,	36.46	Vesta,	78.44
Joy,	99.74	Palestine,	85.12	Volant,	57.04
Kamehumeha 3d,	116.50	Page,	149.69	Vesper,	83.52
Katahdin,	139.80	Packet,	58.46	Vintage,	97.72
Kosciusko,	122.59	Pandora,	62.04	Vision,	23.85
Lorinda,	63.37	Primus,	43.45	Vesta,	78.44
Lively,	84.92	Potomac,	128.30	Victor,	167.38
Lexington,	96.11	Perseverance,	88.00	Viola,	101.71
Louisa,	98.70	Pioneer,	67.16	Vanda,	147.00
Leaper,	62.20	Phantom,	51.29	Watchman,	104.89

SCHOONERS—Continued.

Names.	Tons.	Names.	Tons.	Names.	Tons.
Waldo,	98.00	Wm. Wilson,	97.08	White Oak,	47.68
White Oak,	90.40	Wasp,	40.82	Zephyr,	92.31
Wave,	96.43	William,	49.74		

Sloops.

Names.	Tons.	Names.	Tons.	Names.	Tons.
Albion,	28.89	Gen. Lovell,	35.66	Meridian,	24.29
Almira,	40.43	Grecian,	152.52	Mariah & Hannah,	60.78
Abigail Little,	20.10	Gladiator,	25.19	Mary,	37.00
Albion,	65.03	Good Intent,	29.68	Nancy,	75.78
Belle Savage,	35.00	Granite,	40.25	Newcomb,	36.73
Betsey,	24.00	Glide,	58.88	New York,	31.26
Brilliant,	37.63	Hero,	25.28	Nancy,	36.66
Brilliant,	39.30	Hornet,	26.18	Nancy,	35.44
Betsey,	25.69	Hero,	43.51	Olive Branch,	31.10
Concord,	33.73	Hero,	61.65	Polly,	35.18
Cyrus,	37.81	Irene,	23.24	Purser,	30.29
Combine,	40.60	Levi Bates,	36.88	Quincy,	38.75
Caroline,	26.00	Louisa,	40.17	Rapid,	38.83
Canton,	46.44	Linnæus,	59.42	Stranger,	40.80
Clarissa,	59.13	Lion,	37.51	Sarah Jane,	39.44
Charles,	49.42	Mayflower,	25.56	Splendid,	35.38
Dove,	30.27	Mechanic,	32.87	Two Cousins,	24.47
Diamond,	55.56	Malvina,	34.26	Traveller,	32.92
Edward,	35.44	Mayflower,	32.42	Truth,	35.51
Express,	55.10	Magnolia,	36.17	Volant,	44.56
Eagle,	58.00	Messenger,	40.28	Volant,	34.00
Essex,	20.58	Milo,	43.00	Washington,	32.22
Flash,	34.93				

STEAMERS.

Names.	Tons.	Names.	Tons.	Names.	Tons.
Boston,	105.12	East Boston,	164.26	Malden,	105.37
Chelsea,	107.52	Eastern Railroad,	242.33	Mattakees,	22.06
Charter Oak,	545.16	Huntress,	333.13	Neponset,	73.27
Essex,	164.26	Maverick,	164.26	Portland,	445.46

EXPORTS OF TEA FROM CHINA TO THE UNITED STATES,

FROM JUNE 30, 1844, TO JULY 1, 1845, COMPARED WITH THE TWELVE MONTHS PRECEDING.

	1844-5.	1843-4.
Green—Young Hyson.....lbs.	9,182,281	6,800,419
Hyson.....	354,915	539,794
Hyson Skin and Twankay.....	2,644,859	1,738,291
Gunpowder.....	944,065	597,088
Imperial.....	674,979	456,245
Total green.....lbs.	13,802,099	10,131,837
Black—Souchong and Congou.....lbs.	5,264,090	3,133,133
Powchong.....	1,318,731	799,622
Pecco.....	51,906	60,178
Orange Pecco.....	12,862
Oolong.....	302,870	132,594
Total black.....lbs.	6,950,459	4,125,527

From the above table, it appears that the total quantity of tea exported to the United States in the twelve months ending July, 1845, was 20,752,558 lbs.; and for the same period of the previous year it was 14,257,364—increase in 1845, over the previous year, 6,495,194.

UNITED STATES, NEW YORK STATE, AND CITY STOCKS.

LIST OF UNITED STATES, NEW YORK STATE, AND NEW YORK CITY STOCKS, PREPARED EXPRESSLY FOR THE MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE, BY J. F. KNTZ, OF THE NEW YORK LIFE INSURANCE AND TRUST COMPANY.

Rate.	Redeemable.	Int. payable, and where.	Purpose for which issued.	Total amount.
6 p.c.	January 1, 1863	$\frac{1}{2}$ Deposit Banks.	United States Loan.	\$8,343,886 82
5	July 1, 1863	$\frac{1}{2}$ " "	" "	7,004,231 55

\$15,348,118 37

Interest payable 1st January and 1st July.

7	July	1, 1848	$\frac{1}{2}$	Manhattan Co.	To preserve credit of State.	\$1,584,736 00
7	July	1, 1849	$\frac{1}{2}$	"	"	2,062,400 00
6	July	1, 1852	$\frac{1}{2}$	"	"	400,000 00
6	July	1, 1860	$\frac{1}{2}$	"	"	620,000 00
5	June	1, 1862	$\frac{1}{2}$	"	"	655,000 00
6	Sept.	1, 1861	$\frac{1}{2}$	Merch. Bank.	New York & Erie Railroad.	100,000 00
6	Oct.	1, 1861	$\frac{1}{2}$	"	"	100,000 00
6	Jan.	1, 1862	$\frac{1}{2}$	"	"	100,000 00
6	July	1, 1862	$\frac{1}{2}$	"	"	800,000 00
5 $\frac{1}{2}$	July	1, 1860	$\frac{1}{2}$	"	"	200,000 00
5 $\frac{1}{2}$	Oct.	1, 1860	$\frac{1}{2}$	"	"	200,000 00
5 $\frac{1}{2}$	Jan.	1, 1861	$\frac{1}{2}$	"	"	200,000 00
5 $\frac{1}{2}$	Feb.	1, 1861	$\frac{1}{2}$	"	"	200,000 00
5 $\frac{1}{2}$	March	1, 1861	$\frac{1}{2}$	"	"	100,000 00
5 $\frac{1}{2}$	April	1, 1861	$\frac{1}{2}$	"	"	200,000 00
5 $\frac{1}{2}$	May	1, 1861	$\frac{1}{2}$	"	"	100,000 00
5 $\frac{1}{2}$	June	1, 1861	$\frac{1}{2}$	"	"	100,000 00
5 $\frac{1}{2}$	July	1, 1861	$\frac{1}{2}$	"	"	200,000 00
5 $\frac{1}{2}$	Aug.	4, 1861	$\frac{1}{2}$	"	"	100,000 00
4 $\frac{1}{2}$	Jan.	1, 1859	$\frac{1}{2}$	"	"	100,000 00
4 $\frac{1}{2}$	July	1, 1859	$\frac{1}{2}$	"	"	100,000 00
4 $\frac{1}{2}$	Oct.	1, 1859	$\frac{1}{2}$	"	"	100,000 00
6	July	1, 1854	$\frac{1}{2}$	Manhattan Co.	Erie Enlargement.	500,000 00
6	July	1, 1860	$\frac{1}{2}$	"	"	303,100 00
5	Jan.	1, 1856	$\frac{1}{2}$	"	"	4,000,000 00
5	July	1, 1858	$\frac{1}{2}$	"	"	2,225,519 29
5	July	1, 1846	$\frac{1}{2}$	"	Oswego Canal.	421,304 00
5	July	1, 1846	$\frac{1}{2}$	"	Cayuga & Sepeca Canal.	150,000 00
5	July	1, 1849	$\frac{1}{2}$	"	"	87,000 00
6	Jan.	1, 1861	$\frac{1}{2}$	"	Chemung Canal.	18,682 00
5	Aug.	1, 1850	$\frac{1}{2}$	"	"	316,000 00
5	Jan.	1, 1861	$\frac{1}{2}$	"	"	114,292 23
5	Aug.	1, 1850	$\frac{1}{2}$	"	Crooked Lake Canal.	120,000 00
6	Jan.	1, 1851	$\frac{1}{2}$	"	Chenango Canal.	20,000 00
5	Jan.	1, 1854	$\frac{1}{2}$	"	"	20,000 00
6	July	1, 1860	$\frac{1}{2}$	"	Black River Canal.	10,000 00
5	Jan.	1, 1851	$\frac{1}{2}$	"	"	800,000 00
5	July	1, 1858	$\frac{1}{2}$	"	"	276,706 23
6	July	1, 1860	$\frac{1}{2}$	"	Genesee Valley Canal.	10,000 00
5	July	1, 1853	$\frac{1}{2}$	"	"	556,379 82
5	Jan.	1, 1861	$\frac{1}{2}$	"	"	2,000,000 00
5	April	1, 1851	$\frac{1}{2}$	"	Oneida Lake Canal.	50,000 00
5	Jan.	1, 1861	$\frac{1}{2}$	"	Oneida River Improvement.	50,000 00
5	At pleasure		$\frac{1}{2}$	Comp. off. Alb.	John Jacob Astor.	561,500 00
5	Jan.	1, 1848	$\frac{1}{2}$	Manhattan Co.	Bank fund.	348,107 00
5 $\frac{1}{2}$	Jan.	1, 1865	$\frac{1}{2}$	Bank of State.	Ithaca & Oswego R.R. Co.	28,000 00
4 $\frac{1}{2}$	Jan.	1, 1864	$\frac{1}{2}$	"	"	287,700 00
5	July	1, 1858	$\frac{1}{2}$	Chemical B'k.	Catskill & Canajoharie R.R.	100,000 00
5	July	1, 1859	$\frac{1}{2}$	"	"	50,000 00
5	July	1, 1860	$\frac{1}{2}$	"	"	50,000 00
5	Jan.	1, 1848	$\frac{1}{2}$	Del. & H. C. Co.	Del. & Hudson Canal Co.	500,000 00
4 $\frac{1}{2}$	Jan.	1, 1850	$\frac{1}{2}$	"	"	300,000 00

5	Jan.	1, 1858	‡	Phoenix Bank.	Auburn & Syracuse R. R.	200,000	00
5‡	Aug.	1, 1860	‡	Bank of State.	Auburn & Rochester R. R.	100,000	00
5‡	Jan.	1, 1861	‡	"	"	100,000	00
5‡	July	1, 1865	‡	Mech. Bank.	Hudson & Berkshire Railroad.	150,000	00
5‡	July	1, 1865	‡	Merch. Bank.	Tonawanda Railroad Co.	100,000	00
6	Aug.	1, 1861	‡	"	Long Island Railroad.	100,000	00
6	July	1, 1867	‡	"	Schenectady & Troy Railroad.	100,000	00
5‡	July	1, 1865	‡	Mech. Bank.	Tioga Coal, Iron Min., & Man Co.	70,000	00
						\$7,058,393	05
						Contra,	16,458,033 52

New York State stock..... \$13,516,426 57
 Semi-annual interest payable 1st January and 1st July.
 Quarterly " " 1st January, 1st April, 1st July, and 1st October.

NEW YORK CITY STOCKS.

Rate.	Redeemable.	Int. payable.		Amounts.
7	1st February, 1847.	‡	Water Loan Stock.	\$120,305
7	1st " 1852.	‡	"	90,857
7	1st August, 1852.	‡	"	799,350
7	1st February, 1850.	‡	"	989,488
5	1st January, 1858.	‡	"	3,000,000
5	1st " 1860.	‡	"	2,500,000
2	1st Novemb'r, 1870.	‡	"	3,000,000
5	1st " 1880.	‡	"	978,354
5	1st January, 1850.	‡	City Stock of 1820 and '29. }	250,000
5	1st August, 1850.	‡	"	
5	6th May 1850.	‡	Public Building stock.	515,000
5	16th January, 1851.	‡	Fire Loan Stock.	500,000
5	10th May, 1868.	‡	Fire Indemnity Stock.	375,088

Permanent city debt..... \$13,118,442
 Semi-annual interest payable 1st February and 1st August.
 Quarterly " " 1st February, 1st May, 1st August, and 1st November.

PENNSYLVANIA COAL TRADE.

THE COAL TRADE.—The Pennsylvania supplies of coal, according to the Philadelphia Commercial List, by the various canals, have ceased for the season, and by the Reading Railroad have been limited, and will continue so for some months to come. During the winter, 1,000 new cars are to be constructed, to be put on the road next spring. The enlargement of the Schuylkill Canal is rapidly approaching to completion, and \$140,000 have been subscribed to construct boats to carry 150 to 200 tons of coal, to ply upon this work next season. Already 100 boats of this tonnage have been contracted for, to be completed early in the spring.

The receipts from the Lehigh mines, this season, have been as follows:—

Lehigh Company.....	tons	257,740
Beaver Meadow Company.....		77,227
Hazleton Company.....		70,266
Buck Mountain.....		23,914
Total.....		429,159
By Schuylkill Canal.....		263,588
Reading Railway.....		791,762
Lackawanna, say.....		270,000
Wyoming Valley.....		178,401
Pine Grove.....		31,106

Total supply..... 1,964,016

The total supply, by the close of the year, will exceed two millions of tons of coal.

TRADE OF GREAT BRITAIN WITH FRANCE.

The following official account, made up at the "Office of the Inspector-General of Imports and Exports, Custom House, London," exhibits in a comprehensive form the exports from Great Britain to France, and the imports from France into Great Britain, for thirty-one years—that is, for each year from 1814 to 1844 inclusive:—

Years.	EXPORTS TO FRANCE.				IMPORTS FROM FRANCE.	
	Declared value of British and Irish produce and manufactures.	British and Irish produce and manufactures.	Foreign and colonial merchandise.	Total.	Official value.	Amount of import duties (customs and excise.)
1814	£582,703	£377,799	£1,870,337	£2,248,136	£740,227	£913,128
1815	298,292	214,824	1,228,856	1,443,680	754,372	1,182,843
1816	407,700	321,070	1,213,152	1,634,222	417,783	992,367
1817	1,003,486	596,753	1,054,262	1,651,015	527,866	1,017,354
1818	369,504	318,851	877,912	1,196,763	1,162,424	1,145,845
1819	299,493	248,078	734,780	982,358	642,012	1,335,952
1820	390,745	334,087	829,814	1,163,801	775,132	1,412,548
1821	438,266	382,404	1,037,101	1,419,505	865,617	1,501,430
1822	437,009	346,811	839,150	1,185,961	878,273	1,610,329
1823	349,636	241,837	743,575	985,412	1,115,800	1,723,827
1824	338,635	260,498	864,501	1,124,999	1,556,734	1,838,411
1825	360,710	279,212	892,403	1,171,615	1,835,985	1,967,499
1826	488,438	426,820	656,124	1,082,944	1,247,426	2,037,165
1827	446,951	416,726	133,504	550,230	2,625,748	2,058,831
1828	498,938	448,945	195,498	644,443	3,178,825	2,176,233
1829	491,381	509,925	337,897	847,818	2,086,994	1,963,257
1830	475,884	486,284	181,065	667,349	2,317,686	1,963,400
1831	602,688	636,097	256,082	892,179	3,056,155	1,936,698
1832	674,791	847,487	621,822	1,469,309	2,452,894	2,271,249
1833	848,333	997,321	314,317	1,311,638	2,577,215	2,015,540
1834	1,116,885	1,280,667	546,923	1,827,590	2,808,257	2,056,551
1835	1,453,636	1,561,915	505,346	2,067,261	2,746,999	1,956,689
1836	1,591,381	1,700,665	644,950	2,345,615	3,125,978	1,973,492
1837	1,643,204	2,036,844	839,207	2,876,051	2,707,587	1,900,648
1838	2,314,141	3,193,923	601,080	3,885,003	3,431,118	1,988,267
1839	2,298,307	3,118,410	514,243	3,632,853	4,022,790	1,986,056
1840	2,378,149	3,543,665	627,038	4,170,703	3,775,754	1,913,037
1841	2,902,002	4,709,588	806,200	5,515,788	3,654,428	1,969,135
1842	3,193,939	5,506,842	683,872	6,190,714	4,160,509	2,059,634
1843	2,534,898	4,305,616	765,189	5,070,803	3,387,741	1,741,660
1844	2,656,259	4,375,228	828,948	5,204,176	3,687,878	1,879,799

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PRODUCTION OF SUGAR IN LOUISIANA.

The comparative statements of sugar produced in the several precincts of Louisiana, in 1843 and 1844, is derived from the Planter's (Attak.) Banner.

|                       | 1843.  | 1844.  |                       | 1843.   | 1844.   |
|-----------------------|--------|--------|-----------------------|---------|---------|
|                       | Hhds.  | Hhds.  |                       | Hhds.   | Hhds.   |
| St. Mary.....         | 15,311 | 18,795 | West Baton Rouge..    | 3,087   | 4,247   |
| Ascension.....        | 10,633 | 19,223 | St. Martin.....       | 2,621   | 4,419   |
| Iberville.....        | 9,644  | 16,463 | East Baton Rouge..    | 2,334   | 4,474   |
| St. James.....        | 9,350  | 21,519 | St. Bernard.....      | 2,026   | 6,941   |
| Lafourche Interior..  | 6,732  | 14,205 | Lafayette.....        | 908     | 372     |
| Plaquemines.....      | 6,641  | 14,761 | Orleans.....          | 778     |         |
| Terrebonne.....       | 6,366  | 12,661 | St. Landry.....       | 395     | 1,179   |
| Assumption.....       | 6,256  | 11,990 | Point Coupee.....     | 246     | 888     |
| St. Charles.....      | 5,822  | 12,532 | Vermilion.....        | ...     | 862     |
| St. John the Baptist. | 5,743  | 12,575 | Divers small parcels. | ...     | 1,000   |
| Jefferson.....        | 5,453  | 11,218 |                       |         |         |
|                       |        |        |                       | 100,346 | 191,324 |

## COMMERCE OF FRANCE IN 1844.

We usually receive, through a correspondent of the Merchants' Magazine residing in Paris, the annual official statements of the trade and commerce of that country, soon after it is published. In the absence of that document we avail ourself of the following summary, from a private correspondent of the European Times. It appears that the official returns of the commerce of France for 1844, have lately been published, and are of a very satisfactory character. They present the following results:—

|                                     | Importations. | Exportations. | Total.      |
|-------------------------------------|---------------|---------------|-------------|
| England.....frances                 | 145,000,000   | 144,000,000   | 289,000,000 |
| Sardinian States and Austria.....   | 110,000,000   | 95,000,000    | 205,000,000 |
| Switzerland .....                   | 97,000,000    | 108,000,000   | 203,000,000 |
| Belgium .....                       | 125,000,000   | 54,000,000    | 179,000,000 |
| German Association (Zollverein)...  | 88,000,000    | 72,000,000    | 155,000,000 |
| Spain.....                          | 41,000,000    | 102,000,000   | 146,000,000 |
| Italy (Sicily, Tuscany, and Rome).. | 42,000,000    | 40,000,000    | 82,000,000  |
| Russia.....                         | 63,000,000    | 17,000,000    | 80,000,000  |
| Turkey and Greece.....              | 45,000,000    | 20,000,000    | 65,000,000  |
| Low Countries (Netherlands).....    | 29,000,000    | 19,000,000    | 48,000,000  |
| Anseatic Towns.....                 | 13,000,000    | 23,000,000    | 36,000,000  |
| Sweden, Norway, and Denmark....     | 22,000,000    | 4,000,000     | 26,000,000  |
| Portugal .....                      | 2,000,000     | 4,000,000     | 6,000,000   |

So much for Europe. The total amount of the importations and exportations for the different States of America is 461,000,000; for Africa, 42,000,000; for Asia, 55,000,000; and for the French colonies, including Algiers, 250,000,000. In the American division, the United States figure for 133,000,000 of importations, and 102,000,000 of exportations—total, 435,000,000. Thus the United States transact more commerce with France than any other country in the world, even than England. The importations from the United States consists of cottons *en laine* for 97½ millions, tobacco for 22 millions, and other articles of inferior importance. The exportations consists of silk *tissus* for 43 millions, linen *tissus* for 17 millions, cotton *tissus* for 6 millions, lace for 3 millions, wines for 3 millions, and other articles of lesser importance.

In alluding to the foregoing abstract, the Paris correspondent of the Times remarks:—

I have not space to give a detailed account, for the different countries, of the increase or diminution of the exports and imports as compared with previous years; but, generally speaking, there has been an increase with all countries. With the States, the increase is 33 millions, as compared with 1843. The total amount, however, of the trade transacted is less than in 1839 and 1841, owing, as is said, to the hostile tariffs of the States. In the importation of cotton last year, there is a decrease compared with the previous year, and on tobacco to the amount of about 8,000,000. In the exports there is an increase of 10 millions on silk, about 8 millions on linen *tissus*, and about 1½ millions on wines. This last increase is considered remarkable, as it is in spite of the American tariff—still it is much inferior to 1841, when the total export was about 7 millions. It is hoped by the wine-masters of France that the States will have sense enough to modify their tariff, in which case an immense increase in the exportation of wines is expected. With other countries of the Northern and Southern Continents of America, the trade of France has increased to an extent proportionate to that of the United States; but, comparatively speaking, it has been more to the profit of France than her relations with the United States, her exports far exceeding the imports. In conclusion, it must be mentioned that the returns of France do not represent the exact value of either imports or exports, both being calculated according to a scale settled in 1826, since which some articles have fallen in price, and others have increased—still, by striking a balance between the increase and the decrease, the result will be about the same. Considering the vast importance of annual returns of commerce, not only to France, but to all the nations with which she trades, it is to be desired that, in future, she will calculate the value of her exports and imports by their value in the market, and not by a scale of what they were nearly twenty years ago. It is just as easy to take the prices of the current year as of 1826.



## COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

### THE TREATY BETWEEN CHINA AND THE UNITED STATES.

"OF PEACE, AMITY, AND COMMERCE."

WE published in the Merchants' Magazine for March, 1845 (Vol. 12, No. 3, pp. 288, 289, 290,) under the department of "Commercial Regulations," an official abstract of the "Treaty of Wang-Hey," effected by our Commissioner, Caleb Cushing, Envoy Extraordinary, and Minister Plenipotentiary of the United States to China, and the Minister and Commissioner Extraordinary, Tsiyeng, of the Imperial House, etc., General of the Trade and Foreign Intercourse of the Five Ports, etc. This treaty has been ratified by the Chinese, as well as by the American government, and is therefore in full force and operation. We have now obtained an official copy, which we publish below, for permanent record and future reference. The tariff of duties to be levied on imported and exported merchandise, at the five ports, viz., Canton, Amoy, Fuchow, Ningpo, and Shanghai, which accompanies the treaty, will be published in the Merchants' Magazine for February, 1846.

#### THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA AND THE TA TSING EMPIRE.

Desiring to establish firm, lasting, and sincere friendship between the two nations, have resolved to fix, in a manner clear and positive, by means of a treaty or general convention of peace, amity, and commerce, the rules which shall in future be mutually observed in the intercourse of their respective countries. For which most desirable object, the President of the United States has conferred full powers on their commissioner, Caleb Cushing, Envoy Extraordinary, and Minister Plenipotentiary of the United States to China; and the august sovereign of the Ta Tsing empire, on his Minister and Commissioner Extraordinary, Tsiyeng, of the imperial house, a vice guardian of the heir apparent, governor general of the Two Kwangs, and superintendent general of the trade and foreign intercourse of the five ports.

And the said commissioners, after having exchanged their said full powers, and duly considered the premises, having agreed to the following articles:

ART. I. There shall be a perfect, permanent, universal peace, and a sincere and cordial amity, between the United States of America on the one part, and the Ta Tsing empire on the other part, and between their people, respectively, without exception of persons or places.

ART. II. Citizens of the United States resorting to China for the purposes of commerce, will pay the duties of import and export prescribed in the tariff, which is fixed by, and made a part of this treaty. They shall in no case be subject to other or higher duties than are, or shall be required of the people of any other nation whatever. Fees and charges of every sort are wholly abolished; and officers of the revenue who may be guilty of exaction, shall be punished according to the laws of China. If the Chinese government desire to modify in any respect the said tariff, such modifications shall be made only in consultation with consuls or other functionaries thereto duly authorized in behalf of the United States, and with consent thereof. And if additional advantages or privileges, of whatever description, be conceded hereafter by China to any other nation, the United States, and the citizens thereof, shall be entitled thereupon to a complete, equal, and impartial participation in the same.

ART. III. The citizens of the United States are permitted to frequent the five ports of Kwanchow, Amoy, Fuchow, Ningpo, and Shanghai, and to reside with their families, and trade there; and to proceed at pleasure with their vessels and merchandise to and from any foreign port, and either of the said five ports to any other of them. But said vessels shall not unlawfully enter the other ports of China, nor carry on a clandestine and fraudulent trade along the coasts thereof. And any vessel belonging to a citizen of the United States which violates this provision, shall, with her cargo, be subject to confiscation to the Chinese government.

ART. IV. For the superintendence and regulation of the concerns of the citizens of the United States doing business at the said five ports, the government of the United States may appoint consuls or other officers at the same, who shall be duly recognized

as such by the officers of the Chinese government, and shall hold official intercourse and correspondence with the latter, either personal or in writing, as occasions may require, on terms of equality and reciprocal respect. If disrespectfully treated, or aggrieved in any way by the local authorities, said officers on the one hand shall have right to make representation of the same to the superior officers of the Chinese government, who shall see that full inquiry and strict justice be had in the premises; and, on the other hand, the said consuls will carefully avoid all acts of unnecessary offence to, or collision with the officers and people of China.

ART. V. At each of the said five ports, citizens of the United States lawfully engaged in commerce, shall be permitted to import from their own or any other ports into China, and sell there, and purchase therein, and export to their own or any other ports, all manner of merchandise, of which the importation or exportation is not prohibited by this treaty; paying the duties prescribed in the tariff hereinbefore established, and no other charges whatever.

ART. VI. Whenever any merchant vessel belonging to the United States shall enter either of the said five ports for trade, her papers shall be lodged with the consul or person charged with affairs, who will report the same to the commissioner of customs, and tonnage duty shall be paid on said vessel, at the rate of five mace per ton, if she be over one hundred and fifty tons burden; and one mace per ton if she be of the burden of one hundred and fifty tons or under, according to the amount of her tonnage, as specified in the register; said payment to be in full of the former charges of measurement and other fees, which are wholly abolished. And if any vessel, which having anchored at one of the said ports, and there to pay tonnage duty, shall have occasion to go to any other of the said ports to complete the disposal of her cargo, the consul, or person charged with affairs, will report the same to the commissioner of customs, who, on the departure of the said vessel, will note in the port clearance that the tonnage duties have been paid, and report the same to the other custom-houses; in which case, on entering another port, the said vessel will only pay duty there on her cargo, but shall not be subject to the payment of tonnage duty a second time.

ART. VII. No tonnage duty shall be required on boats belonging to citizens of the United States, employed in the conveyance of passengers, baggage, and articles of provision, or others not subject to duty, to or from any of the five ports. All cargo boats, however, conveying merchandise subject to duty, shall pay the regular tonnage duty of one mace per ton, provided they belong to citizens of the United States, but not if hired by them from subjects of China.

ART. VIII. Citizens of the United States, for their vessels bound in, shall be allowed to engage pilots, who will report said vessel at the passes, and take them into port; and when the lawful duties have all been paid, they may engage pilots to leave port. It shall also be lawful for them to hire, at pleasure, servants, compradors, linguists, and writers, and passage or cargo boats, and to employ laborers, seamen and persons for whatever necessary service, for a reasonable compensation, to be agreed on by the parties, or settled by application to the consular officer of their government, without interference on the part of the local officers of the Chinese government.

ART. IX. Whenever merchant vessels belonging to the United States shall have entered port, the superintendent of customs will, if he see fit, appoint custom-house officers to guard the said vessels, who may live on board the ship, or their own boats, at their convenience; but provision for the subsistence of said officers shall be made by the superintendent of customs, and they shall not be entitled to any allowance from the vessel or owner thereof; and they shall be subject to suitable punishment for any exaction practised by them in violation of this regulation.

ART. X. Whenever a merchant vessel belonging to the United States shall cast anchor in either of said ports, the supercargo, master, or consignee, will, within forty-eight hours, deposit the ship's papers in the hands of the consul, or person charged with the affairs of the United States, who will cause to be communicated to the superintendent of customs a true report of the name and tonnage of such vessel, the names of her men, and the cargo on board; which being done, the superintendent will give a permit for the discharge of her cargo.

And the master, supercargo, or consignee, if he proceed to discharge the cargo without such permit, shall incur a fine of five hundred dollars; and the goods so discharged without permit, shall be subject to forfeiture to the Chinese government. But if the master of any vessel in port desire to discharge a part only of the cargo, it shall be lawful for him to do so, paying duties on such part only, and to proceed with the remainder to any other ports; or, if the master so desire, he may, within forty-eight hours after the arrival of the vessel, but not after, decide to depart without breaking

bulk; in which case he will not be subject to pay tonnage or other duties or charges, until, on his arrival at another port, he shall proceed to discharge cargo, when he will pay duties on vessel and cargo, according to law. And the tonnage duties shall be held to be due after the expiration of said forty-eight hours.

ART. XI. The superintendent of customs, in order to the collection of the proper duties, will, on application made to him through the consul, appoint suitable officers, who shall proceed, in the presence of the captain, supercargo, or consignee, to make a just and fair examination of all goods in the act of being discharged for importation or laden for exportation, on board any merchant vessel of the United States. And if dispute occur in regard to the value of goods subject to an ad-valorem duty, or in regard to the amount of tare, and the same cannot be satisfactorily arranged by the parties, the question may, within twenty-four hours, and not afterwards, be referred to the said consul to adjust with the superintendent of customs.

ART. XII. Sets of standard balances, and also weights and measures duly prepared, stamped and sealed, according to the standard of the custom-house of Canton, shall be delivered by the superintendents of customs to the consuls at each of the five ports, to secure uniformity, and prevent confusion in measures and weights of merchandise.

ART. XIII. The tonnage duty on vessels belonging to citizens of the United States shall be paid on their being admitted to entry. Duties of import shall be paid on the discharge of the goods, and duties of export on the landing of the same. When all such duties shall have been paid, and not before, the superintendent of customs shall give a port clearance, and the consul shall return the ship's papers, so that she may depart on her voyage. The duties shall be paid to the shroffs authorized by the Chinese government to receive the same in its behalf. Duties payable by merchants of the United States, shall be received either in sycee silver, or in foreign money, at the rate of exchange, as ascertained by the regulations now in force. And imported goods, on their resale or transit in any part of the empire, shall be subject to the imposition of no other duty than they are accustomed to pay at the date of this treaty.

ART. XIV. No goods on board any merchant vessel of the United States in port, are to be transhipped to another vessel, unless there be particular occasion therefor; in which case, the occasion shall be certified by the consul to the superintendent of customs, who may appoint officers to examine into the facts, and permit the transhipment. And if any goods be transhipped without such application, inquiry, and permit, they shall be subject to be forfeited to the Chinese government.

ART. XV. The former limitation of the trade of foreign nations to certain persons appointed at the Canton government, and commonly called Hong merchants, having been abolished, citizens of the United States, engaged in the purchase or sale of goods of import or export, are admitted to trade with any and all subjects of China, without distinction; they shall not be subject to any new limitations, nor impeded in their business by monopolies or other injurious restrictions.

ART. XVI. The Chinese government will not hold itself responsible for any debts which may happen to be due from subjects of China to citizens of the United States, or for frauds committed by them; but citizens of the United States may seek redress in law; and on suitable representation being made to the Chinese local authorities, through the consul, they will cause due examination in the premises, and take all proper steps to compel satisfaction. But in case the debtor be dead, or without property, or have absconded, the creditor cannot be indemnified, according to the old system of co hong, so called. And if citizens of the United States be indebted to subjects of China, the latter may seek redress in the same way, through the consul, but without any responsibility for the debt on the part of the United States.

ART. XVII. Citizens of the United States residing or sojourning at any of the ports open to foreign commerce, shall enjoy all proper accommodation in obtaining houses and places of business, or in hiring sites from the inhabitants on which to construct houses and places of business, and also hospitals, churches and cemeteries. The local authorities of the two governments shall select in concert the sites for the forgoing objects, having due regard to the feelings of the people in the location thereof; and the parties interested will fix the rent by mutual agreement, the proprietors, on the other hand, not demanding any exorbitant price, nor the merchants, on the other, unreasonably insisting on particular spots, but each conducting with justice and moderation. And any desecration of said cemeteries by subjects of China, shall be severely punished, according to law.

At the places of anchorage of the vessels of the United States, the citizens of the United States, merchants, seamen, or others sojourning there, may pass and repass in the immediate neighborhood; but they shall not, at their pleasure, make excursions



into the country, among the villages at large, nor shall they repair to public marts for the purpose of disposing of goods unlawfully, and in fraud of the revenue. And, in order to the preservation of the public peace, the local officers of government at each of the five ports shall, in concert with the consuls, define the limits beyond which it shall not be lawful for citizens of the United States to go.

ART. XVIII. It shall be lawful for the officers or citizens of the United States to employ scholars and people of any part of China, without distinction of persons, to teach any of the languages of the empire, and to assist in literary labors; and the persons so employed, shall not for that cause, be subject to any injury on the part either of the government or of individuals; and it shall in like manner be lawful for citizens of the United States to purchase all manner of books in China.

ART. XIX. All citizens of the United States in China, peaceably attending to their affairs, being placed on a common footing of amity and goodwill with subjects of China, shall receive and enjoy, for themselves, and everything appertaining to them, the special protection of the local authorities of government, who shall defend them from insult or injury of any sort on the part of the Chinese. If their dwellings or property be threatened or attacked by mobs, incendiaries, or other violent or lawless persons, the local officers, on requisition of the consul, will immediately despatch a military force to disperse the rioters, and will apprehend the guilty individuals, and punish them with the utmost rigor of the law.

ART. XX. Citizens of the United States who may have imported merchandise into any of the free ports of China, and paid the duty thereon, if they desire to re-export the same, in part or in whole, to any other of the said ports, shall be entitled to make application, through their consul, to the superintendent of customs, who, in order to prevent frauds on the revenue, shall cause examination to be made by suitable officers, to see that the duties paid on such goods as entered on the custom-house books correspond with the representation made, and that the goods remain with their original marks unchanged, and shall then make a memorandum in the port clearance of the goods, and the amount of duties paid on the same, and deliver the same to the merchant; and shall also certify the fact to the officers of customs of the other ports, all which being done, on the arrival in port of the vessel in which the goods are laden, and everything being found, on examination there, to correspond, she shall be permitted to break bulk, and land the said goods, without being subject to the payment of any additional duty thereon. But, if on examination, the superintendent of customs shall detect any fraud on the revenue in the case, then the goods shall be subject to forfeiture and confiscation to the Chinese government.

ART. XXI. Subjects of China who may be guilty of any criminal act towards citizens of the United States, shall be arrested and punished by the Chinese authorities according to the laws of China; and citizens of the United States, who may commit any crime in China, shall be subject to be tried and punished only by the consul or other public functionary of the United States thereto authorized, according to the laws of the United States. And, in order to the prevention of all controversy and disaffection, justice shall be equitably and impartially administered on both sides.

ART. XXII. Relations of peace and amity between the United States and China being established by this treaty, and the vessels of the United States being admitted to trade freely to and from the five ports of China open to foreign commerce, it is further agreed, that in case at any time hereafter, China should be at war with any foreign nation whatever, and for that cause should exclude such nation from entering her ports, still the vessels of the United States shall not the less continue to pursue their commerce in freedom and security, and to transport goods to and from the ports of the belligerent parties, full respect being paid to the neutrality of the flag of the United States; provided that the said flag shall not protect vessels engaged in the transportation of officers or soldiers in the enemy's service, nor shall said flag be fraudulently used to enable the enemy's ships, with their cargoes, to enter the ports of China; but all such vessels so offending, shall be subject to forfeiture and confiscation by the Chinese government.

ART. XXIII. The consuls of the United States at each of the five ports open to foreign trade, shall make, annually, to the respective governor general thereof, a detailed report of the number of vessels belonging to the United States which have entered and left said ports during the year, and of the value and amount of goods imported or exported in said vessels, for transmission to and inspection of the board of revenue.

ART. XXIV. If citizens of the United States have special occasion to address any communication to the Chinese local officers of the government, they shall submit the same to their consul or other officer, to determine if the language be proper and respectful, and the matter just and right; in which event he shall transmit the same to



the appropriate authorities for their consideration and action in the premises. In like manner, if subjects of China have special occasion to address the consul of the United States, they shall submit the communication to the local authorities of their own government, to determine if the language be respectful and proper, and the matter just and right; in which case the said authorities will transmit the same to the consul or other officer, for his consideration and action in the premises. And if controversies arise between citizens of the United States and subjects of China, which cannot be amicably settled otherwise, the same shall be examined and decided conformably to justice and equity, by the public officers of the two nations acting in conjunction.

ART. XXV. All questions in regard to rights, whether of property or person, arising between citizens of the United States in China, shall be subject to the jurisdiction and regulated by the authorities of their own government. And all controversies occurring in China, between citizens of the United States and subjects of any other government, shall be regulated by the treaties existing between the United States and such governments respectively, without interference on the part of China.

ART. XXVI. Merchant vessels of the United States, lying in the waters of the five ports of China open to foreign commerce, will be under the jurisdiction of the officers of their own government, who, with the masters and owners thereof will manage the same without control on the part of China. For injuries done to the citizens or the commerce of the United States by any foreign power, the Chinese government will not hold itself bound to make reparation. But if the merchant vessels of the United States, while within the waters over which the Chinese government exercises jurisdiction be plundered by robbers or pirates, then the Chinese local authorities, civil and military, on receiving information thereof, will arrest the said robbers or pirates, and punish them according to law, and will cause all the property which can be recovered to be placed in the hands of the nearest consul, or other officer of the United States, to be by him restored to the true owner. But, if by reason of the extent of territory and numerous population of China, it should in any case happen that the robbers cannot be apprehended, or the property only in part recovered, then the law will take its course in regard to the local authorities; but the Chinese government will not make indemnity for the goods lost.

ART. XXVII. If any vessel of the United States shall be wrecked or stranded on the coast of China, and be subject to plunder or other damage, the proper officers of the government, on receiving information of the fact, will immediately adopt measures for their relief and security; and the persons on board shall receive friendly treatment, and be enabled at once to repair to the most convenient of the free ports, and shall enjoy all facilities for obtaining supplies of provisions and water. And if a vessel shall be forced, in whatever way, to take refuge in any other port than one of the free ports, then, in like manner, the persons on board shall receive friendly treatment, and the means of safety and security.

ART. XXVIII. Citizens of the United States, their vessels and property, shall not be subject to any embargo; nor shall they be seized or forcibly detained for any pretence of the public service; but they shall be suffered to prosecute their commerce in quiet, and without any molestation or embarrassment.

ART. XXIX. The local authorities of the Chinese government will cause to be apprehended all mutineers and deserters from on board the vessels of the United States in China, and will deliver them up to the consuls or other officers for punishment. And if criminals, subjects of China, take refuge in the houses or on board the vessels of citizens of the United States, they shall not be harbored or concealed, but shall be delivered up to justice, on due requisition by the Chinese local officers addressed to those of the United States.

The merchants, seamen, and other citizens of the United States, shall be under the superintendence of the appropriate officers of their government. If individuals of either nation commit acts of violence and disorder, use arms to the injury of others, or create disturbances endangering life, the officers of the two governments will exert themselves to enforce order, and to maintain the public peace by doing impartial justice in the premises.

ART. XXX. The superior authorities of the United States and China, in corresponding together, shall do so in terms of equality, and in the form of mutual communication (*chau hwei*.) The consuls and the local officers, civil and military, in corresponding together, shall likewise employ the style and form of mutual communication (*chau hwei*.) When inferior officers of the one government address superior officers of the other, they shall do so in the style and form of memorial (*shin chin*.) Private individuals, in addressing superior officers, shall employ the style of petition (*pin ching*.) In no case shall any terms or style be suffered which shall be offensive or disrespectful to either

party. And it is agreed that no present, under any pretext or form whatever, shall ever be demanded of the United States by China, or of China by the United States.

ART. XXXI. Communications from the government of the United States to the court of China, shall be transmitted through the medium of the imperial commissioner charged with the superintendence of the concerns of foreign nations with China, or through the governor-general of the Liang Kwang, that of Min and Cheh, or that of the Liang Kiang.

ART. XXXII. Whenever ships of war of the United States, in cruising for the protection of the commerce of their country, shall arrive at any of the ports of China, the commanders of said ships and the superior local authorities of government, shall hold intercourse together in terms of equality and courtesy, in token of the friendly relations of their respective nations. And the said ships of war shall enjoy all suitable facilities on the part of the Chinese government in the purchase of provisions, procuring water, and making repairs, if occasion require.

ART. XXXIII. Citizens of the United States who shall attempt to trade clandestinely with such of the ports of China as are not open to foreign commerce, or shall trade in opium or any other contraband article of merchandise, shall be subject to be dealt with by the Chinese government, without being entitled to any countenance or protection from that of the United States; and the United States will take measures to prevent their flag from being abused by the subjects of other nations, as a cover for the violation of the laws of the empire.

ART. XXIV. When the present convention shall have been definitely concluded, it shall be obligatory on both powers, and its provisions shall not be altered without grave cause; but inasmuch as the circumstances of the several ports of China open to foreign commerce are different, experience may show that inconsiderable modifications are requisite in those parts which relate to commerce and navigation; in which case, the two governments will, at the expiration of twelve years from the date of said convention, treat amicably concerning the same, by means of suitable persons appointed to conduct such negotiation.

And, when ratified, this treaty shall be faithfully observed in all its parts by the United States and China, and by every citizen and subject of each. And no individual State of the United States can appoint or send a minister to China, to call in question the provisions of the same.

The present treaty of peace, amity, and commerce shall be ratified and approved by the president of the United States, by and with the advice and consent of the senate thereof, and by the august sovereign of the Ta Tsing empire; and the ratification shall be exchanged within eighteen months from the date of the signature thereof, or sooner if possible.

In faith whereof, we, the respective plenipotentiaries of the United States of America, and of the Ta Tsing empire, as aforesaid, have signed and sealed these presents.

Done at Wang Hiya, this third day of July, in the year of our Lord Jesus Christ one thousand eight hundred and forty-four, and of Taou Kwang the twenty-fourth year, fifth month, and eighteenth day.

C. CUSHING.

TSIYENG.

#### MEXICAN COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

In the Diario of October 1st, 1845, we find the official promulgation of the new tariff of Mexico. The details of this tariff were published in the Merchants' Magazine for December, 1845, (Vol. 13, No. 6, page 566,) but the following articles have since been added, and we therefore place them on record for the benefit of commercial men engaged in the Mexican trade:—

ART. I. All vessels of whatsoever nation, that shall be on terms of friendship with the Mexican nation, notwithstanding no special treaty of commerce shall have been ratified between them, shall be admitted to all those ports open for foreign commerce. The captain or supercargo, as well as the muniment and cargo of said vessel, shall be held subject to the prescribed laws for the collection of duties, and to all penalties existing at the time of their arrival, from the very moment of their anchorage in the waters of the port.

ART. II. Vessels coming from foreign ports, being other than national vessels, cannot be admitted at any other port save that to which they may be consigned. If they do so, (save under the 72d article of this enactment,) the vessel as well as her cargo shall be considered forfeited. All the surpluses of the cargo over that manifested, will be liable to the penalty of the 84th article, being considered in the light of contraband.

ART. III. The following are the ports which are open to the entrance of foreign vessels: Gulf of Mexico, Sisal, Campeachy, Tobasco, Vera Cruz, Tampico, Matamoras, (Mata-

gorda, Velasco, and Galveston, when they shall have returned to the obedient control of the supreme government.

On the Pacific Ocean—Acapulo, San Blas, and Mazatlan.

In the gulf of California—Guayma and Monterey.

ART. IV. In case any of the above mentioned ports shall be occupied by forces not in obedience to the supreme government of Mexico, it shall remain shut, not only to foreign commerce, but also to coasting vessels, under the terms provided by the decree of the 22d February, 1832.

## NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

### TEIGNMOUTH HARBOR LIGHTHOUSE.

Notice is hereby given, that the Lighthouse which has been for some time past in the course of erection on the southwest end of a certain place called the Den, at Teignmouth, in the county of Devon, and on the northern side of the entrance to the harbor of Teignmouth, under the direction of the Teignmouth Harbor and River Teign Improvement Commissioners, is now completed, and that the light therein, with the sanction of the Trinity Board, will be first exhibited on the evening of Saturday, the 1st day of November, 1845, from sunset to sunrise.

The light, which will be of brilliant gas, and will appear red in all directions, will be fixed and burn at an elevation of 31 feet 2 inches above the level of high water mark at ordinary spring tides.

By compass bearings, Hope's or Bod's Nose bears S. by W.  $\frac{1}{4}$  W. distant 6 miles, and Streight Point near the entrance to Exmouth Harbour, E. by N. also distant 6 miles.

### HARBOR LIGHTS OF SLIPSHAVN.

The following notice of the Harbor Light of Slipshavn, at the entrance of the gulf of Nyeborg, in the Great Belt, is dated at the Danish Hydrographic Office, Admiralty.

The Danish government has announced that a harbor light is now established on the battery of Slipshavn, near Slipsodde Point, at the entrance of the gulf of Nyeborg. The light is fixed; its elevation above the level of the sea is 19 feet, and it may be seen clear of the land of Knudshæd, on the bearing E.  $\frac{1}{4}$  S. magnetic, and round about by the southward to N. by E.  $\frac{1}{4}$  E.

### ALDBRO' RIDGE BUOY.

The following notice to mariners and navigators, is published under date of Trinity House, London, 22d July, 1845:—

The Ridge off Aldbro' having grown up in an E. N. E. direction, the buoy thereof has been moved about two cables' length to the eastward, and now lies in four fathoms at low water, spring tides, with the following marks and compass bearings, viz.: Oxford Church and Castle, in line W.  $\frac{1}{4}$  N. A small red tiled house being the easternmost house but one, at Slauden, on with a remarkable grove of trees N.  $\frac{1}{4}$  W. Oxford lighthouse W. S. W.; Aldbro' church N.  $\frac{1}{4}$  E.; Aldbro' Knapes buoy E.  $\frac{1}{4}$  S.

### BEARINGS OF A ROCK NEAR MONTE VIDEO.

Bearings of a rock not visible, but seen breaking at intervals only, by her Majesty's ship *Comus*, in August, 1845, on which the French brig *Sophie*, and the British brig *Jonathan* were wrecked, marked in the Admiralty chart, as seen by her Majesty's ship *Ranger*, in 1827. Lat. 34 30 S., long. 23 3 W. Bears N. N. E. from the Great Castillo Rock, five miles off the shore. Mark, to avoid it is by keeping the Great Castillo Rock, which appears like a ship under sail, open to the eastward of the smaller and southernmost one.

### SUNKEN WRECK OFF DUNNOSE.

A letter has been received at Lloyd's from the Admiralty, announcing that the wreck of a small vessel had been fallen in with south of Dunnose, by Commander Sherringham, of her Majesty's steamer *Dasher*. Bearings:—St. Catherine's lighthouse, N. 58 W. 8 miles; Ashleydown Sea Lark, N. 2 W., N. 22 30 E.  $6\frac{1}{2}$  miles;  $4\frac{1}{2}$  miles from the nearest point of Dunnose.

**RAILROAD, CANAL, AND STEAMBOAT STATISTICS.****RAILROADS IN EUROPE AND AMERICA.**

From the returns recently completed by order of the British Parliament from documents in the possession of the Board of Trade, and other public documents, it appears that the total amount of capital that has been expended in the construction of railways in different countries, stood as follows, at the close of 1843:—

|                     | Miles. | Amount.      | Av. per mile. |
|---------------------|--------|--------------|---------------|
| Great Britain,..... | 2,069½ | £64,238,630  | £31,048       |
| Belgium,.....       | 343    | 5,872,160    | 17,120        |
| France,.....        | 552    | 10,276,000   | 18,617        |
| Germany,.....       | 1,997½ | 15,500,000   | 7,500         |
| America,.....       | 3,688  | 17,702,400   | 4,800         |
| Total,.....         | 8,650  | £113,589,190 | £13,131       |

For railways in actual progress in Great Britain, an estimated capital of £74,407,520 was raising, in order to construct 3,543 miles of lines, sanctioned by Acts of 1844 and 1845. In France, £44,886,970 for new lines extending over 2,410 miles. In Germany, £18,000,000 for 2,346½ miles; and in America, £26,995,000 for 5,624 miles. This calculation shows that England contributes £138,646,150 out of the whole capital of £277,858,850 expended and expending, or exactly 50 per cent, the length of the projected railways being 5,612½ miles in England, out of the grand total of 22,574½ miles, or close upon 25 per cent of their united lengths.

**BRITISH STEAM VESSELS.**

The British Government has lately caused to be published a statement of the number and tonnage of the mercantile sailing and steam vessels belonging to the several ports of that country. The number of the last description of vessels has greatly increased within the last seven years, and the tonnage in a still greater proportion. The number and tonnage of the several classes of vessels at the two periods were as follows:

|                              | Number. | Tonnage.  |
|------------------------------|---------|-----------|
| Sailing vessels in 1837..... | 23,000  | 2,650,000 |
| “ “ 1844.....                | 23,116  | 2,931,000 |
| Steam vessels in 1837.....   | 620     | 69,800    |
| “ “ 1844.....                | 900     | 114,000   |

This last number of vessels is supposed to be of a collective power of 70,000 horses. There are 390 vessels of less than 50 tons burthen, and 510 above that size, the latter averaging 204 tons. Of these vessels, 679 are owned in England, 137 in Scotland, and 84 in Ireland. Vessels owned in the colonies are, of course, not included. These are 69 in number. There are belonging to the port of London 260 steam vessels, to Newcastle 147, Liverpool 45, Bristol 27, Hull 25, Sunderland 23, Southampton 22, 70 in Glasgow, 36 in Dublin, &c. The whole number of steam vessels belonging to the French commercial marine is only 110. The French military marine is equal to the English, in the number and tonnage of vessels.

**APPLICATION OF THE STEAM WHISTLE.**

One of the most common causes of the explosion of steam-boilers has been the want of a sufficiency of water in the boiler at the time that the heat underneath was very large. In many instance the deficiency of water has resulted from the negligence of the attendant engineer, combined with the fact that no alarm was given previous to the moment of explosion, of the exact state of the water in the boiler. Happily an efficient and simple exponent of the depth of water in the boiler at the time of working, and which acts as a powerful alarm in case of danger, has just been applied to the steam-boilers, at one of the largest manufacturing establishments in the neighborhood of Leeds, in England. By affixing a small pipe in communication with the interior of a boiler at that point below which it is well known to be unsafe to allow the water to be consumed



in the generation of steam, and at the top of such tube putting one of the common whistles that are attached to the railway locomotive engines, a very efficient alarm, as we have said, is formed; for as soon as the water within the boiler has been consumed below the point where the pipe enters the boiler, the steam will rush up the pipe, and thence into the whistle, giving a timely warning of the deficiency of water in the boiler

### CLOSING OF THE NAVIGATION OF THE HUDSON RIVER.

The following table shows the time, in each year, from 1831 to 1845, of the opening and closing of the Hudson river, and the number of days it remained closed:—

| Winters.      | River closed.  | River opened.   | Days closed. |
|---------------|----------------|-----------------|--------------|
| 1831-2,.....  | Dec. 5, 1831.  | March 25, 1832. | 111          |
| 1832-3,.....  | Dec. 21, 1832. | March 21, 1833. | 83           |
| 1833-4,.....  | Dec. 13, 1833. | Feb'y 23, 1834. | 73           |
| 1834-5,.....  | Dec. 15, 1834. | March 23, 1835. | 100          |
| 1835-6,.....  | Nov. 30, 1835. | April 4, 1836.  | 125          |
| 1836-7,.....  | Dec. 7, 1836.  | March 28, 1837. | 111          |
| 1837-8,.....  | Dec. 14, 1837. | March 19, 1838. | 91           |
| 1838-9,.....  | Nov. 25, 1838. | March 21, 1839. | 116          |
| 1839-40,..... | Dec. 18, 1839. | Feb'y 21, 1840. | 65           |
| 1840-1,.....  | Dec. 5, 1840.  | March 24, 1841. | 109          |
| 1841-2,.....  | Dec. 19, 1841. | Feb'y 4, 1842.  | 47           |
| 1842-3,.....  | Nov. 28, 1842. | April 13, 1843. | 135          |
| 1843-4,.....  | Dec. 10, 1843. | March 18, 1844. | 98           |
| 1844-5,.....  | Dec. 17, 1844. | Feb'y 24, 1845. | 65           |
| 1845-6,.....  | Dec. 3, 1845.  |                 |              |

### OPENING AND CLOSING OF THE NEW YORK CANALS.

The following table shows the date of the opening and closing the canals, and the number of days of navigation in each year, for the last twenty-two years, from 1824 to 1845 inclusive:—

| Years.   | Navigation opened. | Navigation closed. | No. days of Nav. | Years.   | Navigation opened. | Navigation closed. | No. days of Nav. |
|----------|--------------------|--------------------|------------------|----------|--------------------|--------------------|------------------|
| 1824.... | April 30           | Dec. 4             | 219              | 1835.... | April 15           | Nov. 30            | 230              |
| 1825.... | " 12               | " 5                | 238              | 1836.... | " 25               | " 26               | 216              |
| 1826.... | " 20               | " 18               | 243              | 1837.... | " 20               | Dec. 9             | 234              |
| 1827.... | " 22               | " 18               | 241              | 1838.... | " 12               | Nov. 25            | 228              |
| 1828.... | Mar. 27            | " 20               | 269              | 1839.... | " 20               | Dec. 16            | 241              |
| 1829.... | May 2              | " 17               | 210              | 1840.... | " 20               | " 3                | 228              |
| 1830.... | April 20           | " 17               | 242              | 1841.... | " 22               | Nov. 30            | 221              |
| 1821.... | " 16               | " 1                | 230              | 1842.... | " 20               | " 28               | 222              |
| 1822.... | " 25               | " 21               | 241              | 1843.... | May 1              | " 30               | 214              |
| 1833.... | " 19               | " 13               | 238              | 1844.... | April 15           | " 26               | 222              |
| 1834.... | " 17               | " 12               | 240              | 1845.... | " 15               | " 29               | 225              |

### COMMERCE OF THE DISMAL SWAMP CANAL.

PRODUCE PASSED INWARD THROUGH THE DISMAL SWAMP CANAL, DURING THE YEAR  
ENDING 30th SEPTEMBER, 1845.

|                           |            |           |                       |            |            |
|---------------------------|------------|-----------|-----------------------|------------|------------|
| Cotton,.....              | bales      | 6,532     | Lard,.....            | kegs       | 842        |
| Fish,.....                | bbls.      | 43,864    | Corn,.....            | bushels    | 1,003,035  |
| Naval Stores,.....        |            | 29,526    | Flax-seed,.....       |            | 7,795      |
| Spirits,.....             |            | 63        | Wheat,.....           |            | 58,817     |
| Spirits Turpentine,.....  |            | 807       | Peas,.....            |            | 26,611     |
| Bacon,.....               | cwts.      | 1,664     | Potatoes,.....        |            | 19,445     |
| Mast timber,.....         | cubic feet | 7,653     | 2 ft. Shingles,.....  | cubic feet | 1,378,510  |
| Other timber,.....        |            | 86,415    | Building do.,.....    |            | 26,943,880 |
| Plank and Scantling,..... |            | 281,692   | Garden pales,.....    |            | 17,100     |
| Pipe Staves,.....         |            | 711,670   | Coopers' bolts,.....  |            | 2,950      |
| Hogshead do.,.....        |            | 6,002,620 | Coopers' staves,..... |            | 284,730    |
| Barrel do.,.....          |            | 219,110   | Fence rails,.....     |            | 14,710     |
| Long shingles,.....       |            | 2,662,500 | Wood,.....            | cords      | 8,076      |

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## MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

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### COMMERCE A THEME FOR THE POET.\*

WE had the pleasure of attending the twenty-fifth anniversary meeting of the Mercantile Library Association of Boston, which took place on the evening of the 25th October, 1845. The address and poem were delivered at the "Odeon," formerly known as the Boston or Federal street Theatre. That spacious building, which will accommodate about three thousand persons, was densely crowded with the wealth, beauty, and fashion of the "Literary Emporium;" and the address of the Hon. ROBERT C. WINTHROP, which occupied nearly two hours in the delivery, as well as the poem of the Rev. R. C. WATERSTON, were listened to with all that interest and enthusiasm which characterises an assembly of Bostonians, particularly when they attempt a popular "notion." But Boston is a great city—and, as Mr. Winthrop said in his address, and very truly—a city set on a hill; yes, on three hills—and it cannot be hid. And, as he further modestly adds, "Let others praise us, and not our own mouths—strangers, and not our own lips," we will say what may, perhaps, be considered a work of supererogation, that Boston possesses, in an "eminent degree," all the resources of true greatness, in her noble men and women; in her unsurpassed system of free schools, and in the number and excellence of her philanthropic institutions. The blind, the lame, the deaf and the dumb, the widow and the orphan find among the "notions" of that goodly city an asylum, where their wants are "supplied according to their several necessities." The truth is, the merchants and business men of Boston are industrious and enterprising; and "what their charity impairs, they save by prudence in their affairs." There is, perhaps, no city in the world with a population so large in which there are so few destitute of the common every-day necessities of life, or where there is less squalid poverty.

But our object was to introduce a few extracts of a commercial character from the poem of Mr. Waterston, in which are some fine passages; although, as a whole, it does not exhibit any very extraordinary marks of poetic fire or genius. The lines flow smoothly, but the rhyming words, to quote from the Boston Transcript, "are too often repeated, as if substitutes could not come when they were wanted." The sentiments of the poem are at once elevated and pure; and although some may think the allusion to PERKINS, APPLETON, and LAWRENCE—names as familiar as the pursuit in which they have amassed fortunes, which they so liberally impart to philanthropic objects—in bad taste, especially as two of these gentlemen were present, we cannot resist the temptation of quoting the passage, and also a happy allusion to the poet Charles Sprague, Cashier of the Globe Bank in Boston:—

"Here magic Art her mighty power reveals,  
 Moves the slow beam, and plies her thousand wheels;  
 Through ponderous looms the rapid shuttle flies,  
 And weaves the web which shines with varied dyes;  
 Here, gliding cars, like shooting meteors run,  
 The mighty shuttle binding States in one!  
 And iron steam-ships, that make ocean seem  
 As if the sea had dwindled to a stream;  
 With smoke above, and weltering fires below,  
 That speed through calms as when tornados blow!  
 Here Commerce spreads on every sea her sail,  
 And ploughs the wave before each passing gale;

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\* A poem, delivered before the Boston Mercantile Library Association, at their twenty-fifth anniversary, October 18th, 1845, by the Rev. R. C. Waterston.

Here, 'mid the city's hum the Merchant stands,  
And holds the thread connecting distant lands;  
He speaks the word—at his commanding will,  
The thousand wheels of industry are still!  
He speaks the word—and at his will, once more,  
The sails of Commerce whiten every shore!

But does the merchant, as his way he wends,  
Ponder on nought but trade and dividends?  
Say, must the Son of Traffic never hold  
Converse with aught but that which brings him gold?  
Shall he no treasure but his silver heed?  
Shall he no volume but his leger read?

Look ye abroad, and think of one whose name  
Stands high enrolled among the heirs of fame;  
Roscoe—the Scholar—Patriot—and Sage—  
Friend of his race, and Genius of his age;  
'Midst walks of business, it was his to scan  
The laws of nature, and the rights of man;  
His noble soul no narrow views confined,  
He toiled for truth, and labored for mankind:  
Why may not coming time look back to you,  
And show the world *we* have our Roscoes too!

\* \* \* \* \*

Who shall deny we have among us, now,  
Some who will wear the laurel on their brow!  
Amidst their toils, to man and virtue true,  
Firm as the rock, and pure as heavenly dew?

May not our land be termed enchanted ground,  
Where, on bank-bills, a Poet's\* name is found?  
Where Poet's notes may pass for notes of hand,  
And valued good long as the Globe shall stand?  
The world can never quench that kindling fire,  
Or break one string of that immortal lyre.  
Sweet and more sweet its melting strains shall rise,  
Till his rapt spirit seeks its native skies!  
And must the Merchant be a child of pelf,  
With thoughts and feelings centered all in self?  
Think ye of those whose honored names now stand  
As merchant princes—nobles of the land!

The poor blind boy seems gifted now with sight,  
His darkened mind is radiant with light.  
How many a sire will drop a grateful tear,  
As PERKINS' name shall fall upon the ear!  
And orphans, too, shall breathe a grateful prayer,  
For one whose bounty they are called to share;  
How many a heart hath found long wished for rest,  
Whom APPLETON's munificence has blessed;  
And last—not least—like evening's brilliant star,  
The name of LAWRENCE sheds its beams afar.  
What word is adequate to speak their fame,  
What marble white enough to bear that name?  
In these true men was Thought and Toil combined,  
Care could not cloud, nor business cramp the mind!  
May those who mingle in this festive hour,  
Catch from their honored names more hope and power,"

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\* Charles Sprague, Esq., Cashier of the Globe Bank, Boston.

## COMMERCE AND RESOURCES OF ALABAMA.

We cheerfully give place to the following letter from J. J. Pleasants, Esq., of Huntsville, Alabama, correcting an error we committed, on what we considered the best authority, that of a gentleman whose circumstances and general information, in regard to the commercial affairs of the United States, would usually render any statements he might make almost semi-official:—

TO THE EDITOR OF MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE:

Dear Sir,—In the November number of your excellent Magazine, I find you have committed a great error in your article "Trade and Commerce of Mobile, and the Resources of Alabama." You state that the "product of the northern district of the State finds a market chiefly in Savannah, Augusta, and Hamburg, Georgia, from which it is shipped to Europe, or northern ports."

Now, I think it quite improbable that there ever was a single bale of cotton forwarded from the northern district of Alabama to either of the markets designated. The cotton of North Alabama is shipped, on the Tennessee river, to New Orleans. The receipts at that port for the commercial year, ending the 31st August, 1835, or as stated by you, viz: 984,616 bales, of which 198,246 bales were from North Alabama and Tennessee. Of this amount, it is probable that 60,000 or 70,000 bales went from North Alabama. The receipts at the port of Mobile we usually put down as the crop of the State of Alabama. That portion of Alabama cotton which goes out of the Tennessee and Chattahoochee rivers, being considered about equal in amount to the receipts from the Tombigby, from Mississippi, at Mobile.

Being in the habit of placing a high estimate on the accuracy of the contents of your valuable journal, I take the liberty, as one of your readers and subscribers, to call your attention to the error, lest its correction may escape your notice. Your serv't.  
Huntsville, November 27th, 1845. J. J. PLEASANTS.

We have also received a letter from Mr. Peter A. Remsen, dated Baltimore, December 5th, 1845, correcting what he calls "a wide mistake" in our account of the "Trade of Mobile and Resources of Alabama," in calling the Alabama river the west branch, as he says "it is the east," and in saying that there is only five or six feet in the west side, and eleven in the east passage of the bay. He says there is from 17 to 19 feet on the outer bar, and an equal number of feet for some five miles up the bay, over a large extent of anchorage ground, and then some fourteen feet of water to the bar, in its upper part, in which is eleven feet water, called 'Dog River Bar,' all correct." Our correspondent, who, we infer, is a ship-master, adds, "I merely mention these facts to have you *correct*, as I take all you say for gospel, unless I know to the contrary, as I did in the above case." A very reasonable faith in our fallible infallibility. We can ask no more. Now, if we were incorrect in this matter, and we presume our correspondent is satisfied that we were, we can only say that we derived *our facts* from the new American edition of McCulloch's Gazetteer, generally considered good authority, re-edited in this country by Daniel Haskel, A. M., late President of the University of Vermont, who, we are informed, re-wrote every article pertaining to the United States, and was at great pains to procure the most recent and correct information. We aim at the utmost accuracy in our statistical details, and we shall ever feel grateful to have our friends point out any errors that may be committed in the pages of the Merchants' Magazine, that we may be able, as we are desirous of rendering all our statements authoritative.

## COAL, IRON, GOLD, AND COPPER OF VIRGINIA.

Bituminous coal occurs at intervals over the tract of 35 miles from South Anna river, near its mouth, to the Appomattox. In some places the coal seam is 41 feet thick. It is found in abundance within fifteen miles of the Richmond, Henrico, in Chesterfield, in Goochland, in Powhatan, on James river, and on the Tuckahoe. At Midlothian pit, in Chesterfield county, a shaft has been sunk seven hundred and twenty feet below the surface, and a seam of fine coal has been penetrated eleven feet. Iron is found



in abundance in various parts of the state. There are seven mines of it in Spottsylvania, near the junction of the Rappahannock and Rapidan rivers. Of gold mines, generally less valuable than iron, there are twelve in Goochland, fifteen in Orange, eleven in Culpepper, twenty-six in Spottsylvania, ten in Stafford, and six in Fauquier—total gold mines, eighty. There are also five copper mines in Fauquier. The mineral resources of Virginia are truly extensive and valuable, and we hope, ere long, that the intelligent citizens of that state will be aroused to an appreciation of the vast resources they possess, resources second to no state in the Union. We should be glad, if some one of her sons would furnish us with an article setting forth the vast resources of the "Old Dominion;" as we feel a deep interest in the social and industrial progress of every section of our wide-spread Union.

#### WOOLLEN MANUFACTURES IN THE UNITED STATES.

William H. Graham, of New York, has published a volume entitled the "Statistics of the Woollen Manufactures of the United States," prepared by the "Proprietor of the Condensing Cards." The information it embodies, though simple, will be useful to merchants and manufacturers generally, as a sort of directory. It commences with Maine, and proceeds with a list of the establishments in each state engaged in Woollen Manufactures, with the names of the owner, firm, or company; location; the number of condensing cards run by each, the kind and quality of the various fabrics made, etc. We only regret that the compiler has not given, at the close, a summary statistical view of the whole, as we should have been spared the trouble of running over nearly two hundred pages for that purpose. On counting the names of factories in the several states, we find there are in Maine, 28; New Hampshire, 58; Vermont, 75; Rhode Island, 40; Connecticut, 109; New York, 318; Massachusetts, 141; New Jersey, 10; Pennsylvania, 101; Delaware, 4; Maryland, 16; Virginia, 18; Ohio, 79; Kentucky, 9; Indiana, 6; Michigan, 6; Illinois, 6; Wisconsin, 7; Missouri, 3; South Carolina, 1; Iowa, 2; North Carolina, 4; Tennessee, 2; Georgia, 3. According, therefore, to this volume, there are in the United States, 1,039 woollen manufactories.

#### WHALE FISHERY AT THE HAWAIIAN ISLANDS.

There arrived at the various ports of the Hawaiian Islands, from Jan. 1st to Sept. 5th, 1845, 272 American whale ships; the whole number for the year will undoubtedly exceed 509 sail; of course some of the ships touch twice and a few three times, still the value of American capital visiting these islands is very great. During the year 1844, there were 459 sail reported at the Islands, manned by 13,200 seamen, and valued at \$23,374,000. The great increase of this branch of our shipping at the Hawaiian Islands, is owing to the opening of the new fishing ground on the NW. Coast. The service in that sea is very severe, however, as most of the whales are taken above the latitude of 60, where most of the time they are enveloped in dense fogs, or struggling against hard gales, yet our enterprising whalemen successfully overcome the great "Leviathan." In consequence of the density of the fogs, great numbers of whale are lost after being killed, for fear of losing the boats. The largest fare taken in 1844, was the Ontario, of Sag Harbor, 4,000 bbls., which, with the bone, was worth \$52,000; and the most valuable, that of the California, Lawrence, N. B., 2,600 sperm, worth \$78,000. This year the South America goes home with a two season cargo worth \$95,000, undoubtedly the most valuable whale oil cargo that ever left the Pacific. The hardy and enterprising whalemen of the New England states seem to conquer all difficulties in their daring pursuits.

## THE BOOK TRADE.

- 1.—*The History of Silk, Cotton, Linen, Wool, and other Fibrous Substances*; including Observations on Spinning, Dyeing, and Weaving, etc. New York: Harper & Brothers.

The time is fast approaching, when the pen of the historian will be turned from the record of gigantic crimes, and their consequent miseries, to the peaceful annals of the industrial arts, and the great scientific and moral movements by which the race are to be regenerated, and brought into harmony with God and his laws. We look forward with a confiding trust, to the period, when the sword shall be exchanged for the pruning knife, and the millions that inhabit the globe shall form a Godlike Unity. Then, in place of lofty spires and gilded domes, the arched heavens, lighted by the sun, and moon, and stars, shall become a fit temple of worship; and every heart shall express, with the lips and the life, the angelic announcement—glory to God in the highest, peace and good-will to man. Of the true history of mankind, only a few chapters have been written. The materials for supplying it have in good part perished in the lapse of time, or been trampled beneath the foot of the war-horse. But our author has made an effort to restore a portion of this history, and in this curious and instructive volume, he traces the progress of a few of those beneficent achievements of inventive genius, which ministers to the personal convenience and comfort of mankind. The annals of silk, cotton, linen, wool, etc., and their manufacture from the earliest time, are here grouped into a systematic history, forming altogether a valuable specimen of the progressive literature of the 19th century. The work is copiously illustrated with well executed engravings.

- 2.—*Biographical and Critical Miscellanies*. By WILLIAM H. PRESCOTT, author of "The History of Ferdinand and Isabella," "The Conquest of Mexico," etc. New York: Harper & Brothers.

This volume, published in the same elegant taste as marks that of Mr. Prescott's histories, and which harmonizes so admirably with the polish and finished character of his style and carefully pruned luxuriance of thought, embraces selections from his contributions to the North American Review. The modest excuse of the author for their fancied defects, expressed in his preface, is entirely unnecessary, for he only can perceive deficiencies in what, to all critics, must seem purely graceful and beautiful. The papers embodied in the volume are, "The Memoirs of Charles Brockden Brown, the American Novelist," critical essays upon "The Asylum for the Blind," "Irving's Conquest of Granada," "Cervantes," "Sir Walter Scott," Bancroft's United States," "Madame Calderon's Life in Mexico," "Maliere," "Italian Narrative Poetry," etc. An elegant portrait of the author enhances the value of a volume which should be considered one of the most priceless gems of American literature.

- 3.—*The Life of Mozart, including his Correspondence*. By EDWARD HOLMES, author of a "Ramble among the Musicians of Germany." New York: Harper & Bros.

With the exception of a short biographical sketch, translated from the French, this is the first and only monument, in our tongue, to the memory and genius of the great composer and musician. It contains, in addition to much of his interesting correspondence, and other papers, a detailed account of his life, adventures, and rise as an artist, and a discriminating sketch of his character, the peculiarities of which are happily illustrated by anecdotes. Many things of him, unknown even to his admirers, are here given to the world, and his biographer fully appreciating the artist, has yet, not like a flatterer, but with true independence, spoken candidly of the faults of the man. It forms the fourth volume of the "Harper's New Miscellany."

- 4.—*The Vigil of Faith, and other Poems*. By CHARLES FENNO HOFFMAN: 4th edition. New York: Harper & Brothers.

The characteristics of Mr. Hoffman's poetry seem to be a certain gracefulness, combined with a fanciful luxuriance; his songs are unsurpassed by any American poet in sentiment, meter, and melody. Though finished, they have yet the marks of being produced without labor beyond the feeling and inspiration of the moment. Of his many fugitive productions, we have here collected a delightful selection.

- 5.—*The Raven, and other Poems.* By EDGAR A. POE. Library of American Books, No. VIII. New York: Wiley & Putnam.

This is the second volume of Mr. Poe's productions that have appeared in Wiley & Putnam's American Library. The characteristics of his poetry are a quick, subtle conception, and a severe taste of what is harmonious in expression. Exhibiting all the nervous, impatient marks of true genius, an unbridled playfulness of fancy, it is, while seemingly riding havoc in thought, meter and harmony, restrained throughout by a skilful rein, that guides sentiment and style by well defined rules, never allowing it to border upon the ridiculous, or ill-judged sublimity. This union of the faculties of a critic and genius, making cultivation a second nature, and unconsciously governing the style, is a rare gift and power in a writer. The passion and sentiment are also original, while the style has a fragmentary character, like the architecture of the ruins of Chiapas, where frescoes, and rude but beautiful workmanship, are scattered about in the wildest profusion. The Raven is rather a production of artistic cleverness than genius, while the poems that follow breathe such pure passion, and are embodied in such beautiful imagery, and the etherial speculations given with so much descriptive, thought-awakening power, that we regret Mr. Poe should do aught else than write poetry.

- 6.—*Memoirs of Father Ripa, during Thirteen Years' Residence at the Court of Peking, in the service of the Emperor of China, with an Account of the Foundation of the College, for the Education of the Young Chinese, at Naples.* Selected and translated from the Italian, by FORTUNATI PRAUDI. Wiley & Putnam's Foreign Library, No. 5. New York: Wiley & Putnam.

This book, published at Naples in 1832, narrates the early conversion of its author, his entry into the Church, and subsequent mission to China, as Catholic priest; residence in the Court of the Celestial Emperor, where, after years spent in good and useful acts, he returned to Italy, and founded a college for the education of Chinese youth, at Naples. Father Ripa died during the last year, as the writer states, in a description of the present condition of the college. The religious customs of the Chinese are rather dwelt upon than other national peculiarities, and the writer unwittingly exposes some Popish humbugs, which certainly enhances the interest of the book.

- 7.—*Western Gleanings.* By Mrs. C. M. KIRKLAND, author of a "New Home." Library of American Books, No. VII. New York: Wiley & Putnam.

For the first time the *ci devant* "Mrs. Mary Clavers" comes before the public unmasked of her soubriquet, and gives us her healthy-toned thoughts and sketches of western life and society. Her "New Home," etc., has done much to idealize that section of the country. The secret of the success of this gifted writer has been the genial, pure, and beautiful characteristics, temper, and spirit exhibited, joined with a quick perception of whatever is remarkable in a character or a scene. Sentiment with her is seen only when regulated by good sense and taste, and then flowing out in sympathy with nature, or whatever is generous and noble. The "Land Fever," "Rustic Balls," "Bee-hunting," the "Rough Settler," "School-master and Village Belle," are described as they would appear to a cultivated and well balanced mind thrown among such scenes.

- 9.—*Life of Louis, Prince of Conde, surnamed the Great.* By LORD MAHON, in two parts. Wiley & Putnam's Library of Choice Reading, Nos. 34 and 35. New York: Wiley and Putnam.

The period in which the Great Prince of Conde gained one of the proudest titles as a warrior, is the most interesting of French annals previous to the revolution. It was that following the reign of Henry of Navarre, and full of national as well as of religious struggles. Lord Mahon has embodied the most striking incidents in this biography, which was first written in French, without a view to publication, and now translated under his own superintendence and revision. It has all the merits of a good history and biography, detailing the plans of the hero in addition to striking incidents in the lives of eminent persons at the time. The style is rather condensed, yet clear, and full of rare historical incidents. The character of Cardinal Mazarin is well drawn, and the work is as good a history of state diplomacy as of military men, and chivalric heroism.

- 9.—*Sketches of Modern Literature and Eminent Literary Men*, (being a Gallery of Literary Portraits.) By GEORGE GILFILLAN. Reprinted entire from the London edition. New York: D. Appleton & Co. Philadelphia: G. S. Appleton.

The principal literary men of whom sketches are here given, are Hazlitt, Shelley, De Quincey, Carlyle, Prof. Wilson, Campbell, Brougham, Coleridge, Emerson, Wordsworth, Lamb, Keats, Macaulay, and Southey. They contain the author's opinions of their literary works, rather than biographical accounts, though some personal incidents are given. Judging from a perusal of a few of them, we should say the author's literary faith was bordering on the transcendental, and yet they exhibit a general and comprehensive acquaintance with English literature. It will be perceived that a critical sketch is given of but one American writer—Ralph Waldo Emerson, who is much admired by the author. In this view, however, of the noted Emerson, he glances at the state of American literature, and briefly refers to Edwards, Dwight, Brockden Brown, Cooper, John Neal, Moses Stuart, Daniel Webster, and Channing, who he numbers as the great names in our intellectual heraldry.

- 10.—*The Book of the Colonies*; comprising a History of the Colonies composing the United States, from the Discovery, in the Tenth Century, until the Commencement of the Revolutionary War. Compiled from the best authorities, by JOHN FROST, LL. D., author of the "Book of the Army," and "Book of the Navy." New York: D. Appleton & Co. Philadelphia: G. S. Appleton.

In the present compilation, Dr. Frost has brought together, in a comprehensive and popular form, the leading events in the history of the colonies from the supposed discovery of the American continent by the Northmen, in the tenth century, to the breaking out of the revolutionary war. In connection with the Book of the Army and the Navy, prepared by the same gentleman, they form a review of the main current of history through the whole period of our colonial and national existence; while each of the volumes is a complete and distinct work, having its proper object and unity.

- 11.—*Sermons preached in the Chapel of Rugby School*, with an Address before Confirmation. By THOMAS ARNOLD, D. D., Head Monitor of Rugby School, author of "The History of Rome," lectures on "Modern History," etc. New York: D. Appleton & Co. Philadelphia: G. S. Appleton.

Although the thirty discourses contained in this volume were addressed to the pupils of the Rugby School, and, therefore, designed for that "description of readers," others will doubtless be edified by the impressive obligations of duty, both moral and religious, interspersed throughout the whole series. The author was probably the most successful and useful educator of the present century, and although an honored member of a very conservative branch of the "Church of England," he was an enlightened and earnest reformer, and withal possessed a truly philanthropic and catholic spirit.

- 12.—*The Book of Good Examples*; drawn from authentic History and Biography; designed to illustrate the beneficial Effects of Virtuous Conduct. By JOHN FROST, LL. D., author of the "Book of the Colonies," "Book of the Army," and "Book of the Navy." New York: D. Appleton & Co. Philadelphia: G. S. Appleton.

This volume is composed of anecdotes of men and women, in all ages and nations, who have displayed in their lives noble or virtuous traits of character. Deeds of virtue are here rendered attractive, and we are scarcely acquainted with a volume that we could more conscientiously recommend to the young. It is replete with examples applicable to almost every circumstance and condition of life.

- 13.—*The Mass and Rubrics of the Roman Catholic Church*. Translated into English. With Notes and Remarks, by Rev. JOHN ROGERSON COTTER, A. M., author of "Questions on St. Matthew and other Gospels." New York: D. Appleton & Co. Philadelphia: G. S. Appleton.

This, we believe, is the first English translation of the "entire mass, with its rubrics," of the Roman Catholic church. The translator is a Protestant, but it is believed that he has given a fair and impartial translation; and in his notes, he appears to have avoided all harsh and irritating language towards Catholic Christians.



14.—*The Complete Works of N. P. Willis.* New York: J. S. Redfield, Clinton Hall.

The publication of no volume can reflect more honor on our literature than this. For the first time, all Mr. Willis' works are before us, in an elegant octavo volume, embellished with a fine portrait of the author, engraved for Graham's Magazine on steel, and dedicated to his editorial associate and friend, General Morris. It contains all his prose works, viz.: "Pencillings by the Way," "Letters from under a Bridge," "High Life in Europe," "American Life," "Inklings of Adventure," "Loiterings of Travel," "Ephemera," the "Lecture on Fashion," with the "Sacred Poems," "Poems of Passion," "Miscellaneous Poems," "Lady Jane," and his two plays of "Tortosa the Usurer," and "Bianci Visconti." Save the "Ephemera," none of them require comment, for they have given their writer a deathless fame, and laurels which need not the breath of his friends to keep fresh and green. The "Ephemera," containing selections of paragraphs contributed to the *Mirror*, have that peculiar finish and individuality, that gives a permanency to papers only intended to record passing daily events, which, since Addison, none have exhibited. Who, of Willis' "parish" of admirers, on both sides of the Atlantic, will not rejoice for his sake and their own, that his productions can now be read together, and the results of his brilliant imagination, his fine genius, his taste, humor, *savoir faire* in literature, society, in every thing where God has given his noblemen a field for high attempting, are here clustered like diamonds and gems richly set, whose brilliancy dazzles all, and wearies none.

15.—*The Poetical Works of Percy Bysshe Shelley.* First American edition complete, with some remarks on the Poetical Faculty, and its Influence on Human Destiny, embracing a Biographical and Critical notice. By G. G. FOSTER. New York: J. S. Redfield.

To speak of Shelley, or his poems—of his unlikeness to other poets or other men—of his strange beauty in that loneliness in which he stands—of his soaring genius mounting to the highest heaven, and in that fearful elevation fluttering and rejoicing at the dizziness, and anon descending into the abysses of our being, and bringing up the gold and jewels from the wrecks strewn there—sad, not that the world abused him, but that it was too far beneath him to deserve his teaching; to dilate on these would be with our short limits, a mockery and profanation, and yet a luxury, which we leave to better pens and more fitting journals. Mr. Foster's admiration for Shelley's genius, is not an overwrought enthusiasm for his subject, but the earnest, genuine sympathy of a true man, with a kindred spirit. The critical portion exhibits a student's appreciation of their beauties; and with the short notice of his life, this preface forms a rich interpreter of the treasures they usher us into beyond. It is not out of place to commend the beautiful binding and pearly paper, with its clear, distinct print, (too small, perhaps,) for the volume richly deserves it.

16.—*The Dream, and other Poems.* By the Hon. Mrs. NORTON. Francis' Cabinet Library of Choice Prose and Poetry.

17.—*A Child of the Islands, a Poem.* By the Hon. Mrs. NORTON. Francis' Cabinet Library, etc., etc. New York: C. S. Francis & Co.

These volumes, the first containing the recent miscellaneous poems of Mrs. Norton, and the second her poem written with reference to the young Prince of Wales, come to us in a very attractive form. Mrs. Norton's poetry has been much and justly admired for merits of its own partly, and partly perhaps from the interest connected with her personal sorrows and difficulties. The first named volume exhibits great versatility of poetical power, and the pieces most to be admired besides the "Dream," are the "Mother's Heart," "German Students' Love Song," "Twilight," and the "Dying Hour." The poem in the other volume, however, does by far the most credit to her genius and her heart. In that she makes the "Child of the Islands" a type of the fortunate class, and contrasts their brightness with the darkness of the lower; and the infant prince is made the subject, from his innocence, to foster a kindness of feeling between the higher and lower classes. The poem exhibits the philosophy and true sympathy of the author with the infirmities of human nature. It would be difficult to select works more appropriate, or better calculated to promote the high and holy aims of a true literature than the volumes thus far embraced in the "Cabinet of Choice Prose and Poetry."

- 18.—*A Brief History of the Condition of Women in Various Ages and Nations.* By L. MARIA CHILD, author of "Philothea," "The Mother's Book," "Letters from New York," "Flowers for Children," etc., etc. Revised and corrected by the author. In two volumes. Francis' Cabinet Library. New York: C. J. Francis.

The popular author of this work does not exhibit, as she states in her short preface, an essay upon woman's rights, or a philosophical investigation of what ought to be her social relations; but she gives an accurate, and for the magnitude of the object, somewhat detailed history of the condition of woman, commencing with the Jewish, and following it down through the Babylonian, Carian, Trojan, and Syrian, down to our own age and country. In addition to the characteristics of a nation or class, she gives many individual instances, which are in themselves interesting in description, as well as concise and condensed. The book evinces much historical research, and embodies many important facts. It is a work that we can heartily commend, as one that should find a place in every family library.

- 19.—*The History of the United States of North America*, from the plantation of the British Provinces, till their assumption of National Independence. By JAMES GRAHAM, LL.D. In four volumes. Second edition, enlarged and amended. Philadelphia: Lea & Blanchard, 1845.

We are indebted to Mr. Josiah Quincy for the republication of this invaluable addition to our historical literature, as well as for much information respecting its eminent writer. Its merits, as a history, could not be well enumerated in a notice as such limits as our pages admit of, nor could we speak of the well-known learning, talents, or virtues of its author. For the latter, we must refer to his interesting memoir, by Mr. Quincy, which was published both separate from this work, and is also prefixed to it, compiled from his extended correspondence. The history is here published in four elegant octavo volumes, with a fine portrait of the author. How much we are indebted to him, as Americans, can only be learned by a perusal of it, regarded as it has been by such men as Judge Story, Jared Sparks, Judge Savage, and William H. Prescott, the historian, as abounding in "laborious research and merit, and written in a faithful and elevated spirit." It is a work of standard value and enduring interest, and should find a place in every public or private library in the country. We earnestly commend it to the notice of those who have the selection of works for our School District Libraries.

- 20.—*Stable Talk, and Table Talk; or, Spectacles for Young Sportsmen.* By HARRY HIGOVER. Philadelphia: Lea & Blanchard.

This is a medley for the sportsman, furnishing rules for the training and curing of his horse, and also hints for his management on the turf, blended with broad anecdotes, jokes, and humor, which makes it just fitted to answer the purpose suggested by its title. The writer is evidently a sportsman in feeling, by nature, and by cultivation, and writes for those *sui generis*. The wit is sometimes broad, but polish would be out of place in the scenes he describes. Still the author is nice in points of honor, and his beau ideal of a gentleman, though characteristic, not too low. The preface is one of the most sarcastic, pungent things, we have lately read; and the sporting world will welcome this addition to their literature, and give it all the credit it deserves.

- 21.—*The Snow-Flake for 1846.* A Gift for Innocence and Beauty. Edited by T. S. ARTHUR. Philadelphia and New York: E. Ferrett & Co.

This is an almost faultless annual, and rarely surpassed in elegance of publication or taste in choice of contents. The contributions are from some of our most popular writers, among whom we would mention the gifted editor, T. S. Arthur, George P. Morris, Henry P. Hirst, Fanny Forester, Mrs. Elizabeth Oakes Smith, Mrs. E. F. Ellet, etc., etc. The first is a translation from Kotzebue, of "The Quakers," the scene of which is laid in the American Revolution, and the principal characters were General Howe, his wife, and three Quakers. It is interesting, from the scenes and author. There are several delightfully written tales, of which we have not room to enumerate the titles or names of their authors. They deserve the highest rank as short fictions, and are accompanied with many choice poetical contributions. The chief attractions of the volume are the beautifully executed engravings. The frontispiece, "Lady Helen," engraved by Robinson, is the most life-like, speaking countenance, we have ever seen from any artist. The title-page and "Edith Bellenden," from the same engraver, are unsurpassable. The "Gleaner," by Heath, "The Smuggler's Boat" and "Crew," by Brannard, in fact, all of them are very fine specimens. Paper, gilding and binding, are appropriate to such beauties of art and genius.

22.—*The Romish Church and Modern Society.* Translated from the French of Prof. E. QUINET, of the College of France. Edited by C. EDWARDS LESTER. New York: Gates & Stedman.

23.—*The Jesuits.* Translated from the French of M. M. MICHELET and QUINET, Professors in the College of France. Edited by C. EDWARDS LESTER. New York: Gates & Stedman.

The first of these translations contains the lectures of Prof. Quinet, and the second is the joint labor of himself and his well-known coadjutor, Prof. Michelet. Their purpose was to controvert the growing influence of the society of Jesuits, and, by the exposure of their plans, deceptions, and true spirit, as well as in what consisted the secret of the greatness of the Romish Church, they have given a powerful direction to public sentiment, and been one of the influences which have aided to drive the Jesuits from France to Italy. Nothing can be more encouraging to the progress of intellectual freedom, than the action of these men, and the spirit displayed in these volumes of true appreciation of Christianity, the historical research, and philosophical deductions which they embody, as well as the applicability of much of the advice to the Jesuitism of our land, should make them welcome to all.

24.—*Leaflets of Memory; an Annual for MDCCCXLVI.* Edited by REYNELL COATES, M. D. Philadelphia: E. H. Butler & Co.

There is a substantial, rather than delicate richness about the outward appearance of this annual. In addition to a few fine engravings, of which we could hardly speak in terms of too high commendation, the title-pages, etc., are illuminated—a rare mode of ornament, particularly in annuals. The contributions are chiefly from the pen of the editor, Dr. Coates, and Henry B. Hirst. They are principally tales of a light character, with the addition of two or three poems. Although the tales are rather lengthy than numerous, the volume is above the ordinary size of annuals, owing to the superior paper on which it is printed. It is, on the whole, the most desirable gift book of the season, emanating from the Philadelphia press, at least, that we have had an opportunity of examining.

25.—*Love's Token Flowers.* By EMMA C. EMBURY. New York: J. C. Riker.

This handsome little volume contains the names of more than sixty of love's token flowers, each illustrated with an original poem of the gifted author, whose fancy has beautifully associated love and poetry with flowers; thus spiritualizing truth far more effectually than all the reasonings of science.

26.—*A History of Long Island, from its First Settlement by the Europeans to the year 1845, with Special Reference to its Ecclesiastical Concerns.* By NATHANIEL S. PRIME. New York: Robert Carter.

This volume, a thick duodecimo of 420 pages, is divided into two parts, 124 of which are devoted to its physical features and civil affairs, progress of population, etc., and the remaining 295 to its intellectual, moral, and religious condition, from its first settlement to the present time. Until within a few years, Long Island was scarcely known, beyond the map, to non residents; and we venture to say, that more strangers have passed over it in one day, since the completion of the Long Island Railroad, than in a century before. It was so far removed—so difficult of access, and presented so few inducements to wander through its forests, and ride through its sands, that for the space of two hundred years it has remained in a great measure "terra incognita" to almost the whole world. Mr. Prime has furnished a very valuable book; and while he has given an interesting account of its religious history, he has also given a very comprehensive view of the population, resources, &c., of the island.

27.—*The Poems of ALFRED B. STREET.* Complete edition. New York: Clark & Austin.

The poems embraced in this volume have been mostly published in periodicals. They are generally descriptive of the outward world, and nature in its varied aspects. The author exhibits more than ordinary power of description, and a sentiment of worship for, and deep sympathy with nature, showing, as he states in his preface, that he has spent much time in the beautiful and picturesque scenes of his own state, and that he has drank deeply from that ever-fresh fountain, and read and understood the language the Deity has everywhere written.

28.—*Poems*. By FRANCES S. OSGOOD. New York: Clark & Austin.

In the numerous and varied poems of this collection, we discern the outpouring of a buoyant, joyous spirit, a sportive playfulness of fancy and sentiment, which wishes to see and make the world in the same good humor as herself. We should place the volume in the same rank among poetry that we should classify among the different phases of humanity, a happy, romping child, flying among the sports and pleasures of life, now trampling the lilies and roses under its feet, and anon chasing the butterfly in summer gardens, without a cloud upon its spirits. There is much beauty in these short poems, and their author is justly a favorite; for a spirituality, not too sublimated, and still human, appealing to our sympathies with the joyful and sometimes the tender, by delightful images and beautiful language, runs through them all.

29.—*The Chainbearer*, or the Little Page Manuscripts. By J. FENNIMORE COOPER, author of "Miles Wallingford," "Pathfinder," etc. New York: Burgess, Stringer & Co.

This novel is a continuation of "Satanstoe," the scene of which, it will be remembered, was laid in the period previous to the old French war. The characters which figure in the "Chainbearer," are the descendants (with the lapse of one generation) of those who figured in "Satanstoe." The plot is well carried on, and the story rendered characteristic of Cooper, by the introduction of the Indian and the negro. The design of the series is to touch the question of anti-rentism; the application, probably, of the characters of "Satanstoe" and the "Chainbearer" to the circumstances and principles of that exciting subject, being intended for the last. The contrast between those descended from Puritan and Dutch forefathers, is also well kept up.

30.—*Rambles by Land and Water*, or Notes of Travel in Cuba and Mexico; including a canoe Voyage up the River Panuco, and Researches among the Ruins of Tamaulipas, etc. By B. M. NORMAN, author of "Rambles in Yucatan," etc. New York: Paine and Burgess.

A considerable part of the field here surveyed has been occupied by previous travellers, and most of the objects which they present have been observed and treated of in an attractive form, but not, as we recollect, in a more agreeable style. But the field is wide, and Mr. Norman has succeeded in gathering materials of sufficient interest to form a very readable and instructive volume. We have seldom met with a book of travels, over so wide a range of country, and touching so many interesting incidents and topics, presented to the reader so comprehensively. The volume contains several engravings of the curious relics of antiquity.

31.—*The Gem of the Season*. Edited by J. H. AGNEW. With twenty plates by SARTAIN. New York: Leavitt, Trow & Co.

With Sartain's splendid mezzotints, twenty in number, and of the highest elegance, design, and execution, selections from some of England's best poets, neat binding, beautiful paper and print, this annual really deserves to be called a "Gem." The subjects of most of the engravings are grand in character; of which, "Napoleon at St. Helena," "Milton Dictating to his Daughters," "Trial of Queen Katharine," "Hector and Andromache," "The Last Man," are striking instances. The preface claims that it is the best that has appeared this side of the water, and hints rather invidiously at England. In truth, we have rarely if ever seen more tasteful specimens of engravings, with more beautiful and appropriate poetical illustrations.

32.—*Geraldine*, a Sequel to Coleridge's *Christabel*; and other Poems. By MARTIN FARQUHAR TUPPER. Boston: Saxton & Kelt. New York: Saxton & Huntington.

All who have read Coleridge's artistic poem, must judge whether Mr. Tupper has added or detracted from the merits of that masterly production, by his "Geraldine." To us, it seems a completion of an unfinished statue, in which the second artist has happily caught the spirit of the first. The same measure and supernatural vein of description, vivid contrast of the beautiful and the hideous, and especially, wonderful adaptation of words to produce an image for the sense, corresponding to that produced upon the mind by the idea, are apparent in both. As to the remaining poems in the volume, although we recognize the marks of style and thought, which distinguish the rhymed philosophy by which Mr. Tupper is so well known, yet some abound in deep touches of passion and sentiment, establishing the versatility of Mr. Tupper's powers, and claim as a poet of no mean rank.